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INTRODUCTORY TEXT BOOK
GEOLOGY

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INTRODUCTORY TEXT-BOOK

OF

GEOLOGY

BY

DAVID PAGE, F.G.S.

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P R E F A C E.

THE object of this little Treatise is to furnish an elementary outline of the science of Geology. In its preparation the utmost care has been taken to present a simple but accurate view of the subject, to lead the learner from things familiar to facts less obvious, and from a knowledge of facts to the consideration of the laws by which they are governed. By adopting such a method, Geology, instead of being a dry accumulation of facts, and its study a mere task of memory, becomes one of the most attractive departments of natural science, and affords one of the finest fields for the exercise of the observing and reflective faculties. The treatise, though initiatory, is arranged on a strictly scientific basis, the author being convinced that the student's progress is best promoted by commencing at once with the technical treatment of his subject, and making him feel that he is step by step acquiring the power to master for himself the higher and more difficult deductions. Such a course may require closer attention, and cost him a little more labour at the

outset, but it will be found as he advances to be the more pleasant as well as more profitable mode of procedure. Every science, like every manual art, has a style and mode of handling peculiar to itself—a fact too often lost sight of in volumes professing to be “Popular Treatises” and “Easy Introductions.” A soldier does not acquire the ready use of his musket by being trained to handle a broomstick; neither can a student become familiar with the truths of his science, or be taught to apply them, unless through the medium of the language and illustration appropriate to the subject. Whatever may be the defects of this manual, the author has endeavoured to write as a geologist—to afford the pupil an accurate outline of the science, should he stop short at this stage of his progress, and to present him, should he wish to prosecute the study, with a gradual introduction to a more advanced and comprehensive text-book. In either case the treatise is complete as far as it goes; and the student who has mastered its details will have acquired no insignificant amount of geological information.

EDINBURGH, *August* 1854.

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GEOLOGY.

I.

GEOLOGY: A HISTORY OF THE STRUCTURE AND CONDITIONS OF THE GLOBE, AS MANIFESTED IN ITS CRUST OR PORTION ACCESSIBLE TO HUMAN INVESTIGATION.

Objects and Scope of the Science.

1. GEOLOGY (from two Greek words—*gê*, the earth, and *logos*, a discourse or reasoning) embraces, in its widest sense, the constitution and history of our globe. Its object is to examine the various materials of which our planet is composed, to describe their appearance and relative positions, to investigate their nature and mode of formation, and generally to discover the laws which seem to regulate their arrangement.

2. As a department of natural science, Geology confines itself more especially to a consideration of the mineral or rocky constituents of the earth, and leaves its surface configuration to Geography, its vegetable life to Botany, its animal life to Zoology, and the elementary constitution of bodies to the science of Chemistry. Being unable to penetrate beyond a few thousand feet into the solid substance of the globe, the labours of geologists are chiefly confined to the external film or crust; hence we speak of the "crust of the globe," meaning thereby that portion of the rocky structure accessible to human investigation.

3. The materials composing this crust are rocks or minerals of various kinds—as granite, basalt, roofing-slate, sandstone, marble, coal, chalk, clay, and sand—some hard and compact, others soft and incoherent. These substances do not occur

indiscriminately in every part of the world, nor, when found, do they always appear in the same position. Granite, for example, may be found in one district of a country, marble in another, coal in a third, and chalk in a fourth; and some of these rocks occur in regular layers or strata (*stratum*, strewn or spread out), while others rise up in shapeless mountain-masses. It is evident that substances differing so widely in composition and structure must have been formed under different circumstances, and by different causes; and it becomes the task of the geologist to discover these causes, and thus infer as to the former conditions of the world.

4. When we sink a well, for example, and dig through certain clays, sands, and gravels, and find them succeeding each other in layers, we are instantly reminded of the operations of water, and are led to inquire whether these clays, sands, and gravels owed their origin to rivers, to lakes, or to seas. In our investigation we may also discover shells, bones, and fragments of plants imbedded in the clays and sands; and thus we have a further clue to the history of the strata through which we pass, according as the shells and bones are the remains of animals that lived in fresh-water lakes and rivers, or inhabited the waters of the ocean. Again, in making a railway-cutting, excavating a tunnel, or sinking a coal-pit, we may pass through many successions of strata—such as clay, sandstone, coal, ironstone, limestone, and the like; and each succession of strata may contain the remains or impressions of different plants and animals. Such differences can only be accounted for by supposing each stratum or set of strata to have been formed by different agencies, and under different conditions of climate, as well as under an arrangement of sea and land differing from that now existing.

5. In making these investigations, the geologist is guided by his knowledge of what is now taking place on the surface of the globe—ascribing similar results to similar or analogous causes. Thus, in the present day, we see rivers carrying down sand and mud and gravel, and depositing them in layers either in lakes, in estuaries, or along the bottom of the ocean. By this process many lakes and estuaries have, within a comparatively recent period, been filled up and converted into dry land. We see also the tides and waves wasting away the sea-cliffs in one district, and accumulating expanses of sand and salt-marsh in some sheltered locality. By this agency thousands of acres of land have been washed away and covered by the sea, even within the memory of man; while by the same means new tracts have been formed

in districts formerly covered by the tides and waves. Further, we learn that, during earthquake convulsions, large districts of country have sunk beneath the waters of the ocean; while in other regions the sea-bottom has been elevated into dry land. Volcanic action is also materially changing the surface of the globe—converting level tracts into mountain ridges, throwing up new islands from the sea, and casting forth lava and other materials, which in time become hard and consolidated rock-masses.

6. As these and other agents are at present modifying the surface of the globe, and changing the relative positions of sea and land, so in all time past have they exerted a similar influence, and have necessarily been the main agents employed in the formation of the rocky crust which it is the province of geology to investigate. Not a foot of the land we now inhabit but has been repeatedly under the ocean, and the bed of the ocean has formed as repeatedly the habitable dry land. No matter how far inland, or at what elevation above the sea, we now find accumulations of sand and gravel,—no matter at what depth we discover strata of sandstone or limestone,—we know, from their composition and arrangement, that they must have been formed under water, and been brought together by the operations of water, just as layers of sand and gravel and mud are accumulated or deposited at the present day. And as earthquakes and volcanoes break up, elevate, and derange the present dry land, so must the fractures, derangements, and upheavals among the strata of the rocky crust be ascribed to the operation of similar agents at remote and distant epochs.

7. By the study of existing operations, we thus get a clue to the history of the globe; and the task is rendered much more clear and certain by an examination of the plants and animals found imbedded in the various strata. At present, shells, fishes, and other animals are buried in the mud or *silt* of lakes and estuaries; rivers also carry down the remains of land animals, the trunks of trees and other vegetable drift; and earthquakes submerge plains and islands, with all their vegetable and animal inhabitants. These remains become enveloped in the layers of mud and sand and gravel formed by the waters, and in process of time are *petrified* (*petra* a stone, and *fit* I make); that is, are converted into stony matter like the shells and bones found in the oldest strata. Now, as at present so in all former time must the remains of plants and animals have been similarly preserved; and as one tribe of plants is peculiar to the dry plain, and another to the swampy morass,—as one family belongs to a

temperate, and another to a tropical region,—so, from the character of the imbedded plants, are we enabled to arrive at some knowledge of the conditions under which they flourished. In the same manner with animals: each tribe has its locality assigned it by peculiarities of food, climate, and the like; and by comparing *fossil* remains (fossil, from *fossus*, dug up, applied to all remains of plants and animals imbedded in the rocky crust) with existing races, we are enabled to determine many of the past conditions of the world with considerable certainty.

8. By examining, noting, and comparing as indicated in the preceding paragraphs, the geologist finds that the strata composing the earth's crust can be arranged in series; that one set or series always underlies, and is succeeded by another set; and that each series contains the remains of plants and animals not to be found in any other series. Having ascertained the existence of such a sequence among the rocky strata, his next task is to determine that sequence in point of time—that is, to determine the order from the newer series of strata; to ascertain, if possible, the nature of the plants and animals whose remains are imbedded in each set; and lastly, to discover the geographical range or extent of the successive series. These series he calls *formations*, as having been formed under different conditions, and at different times; and it is by a knowledge of these that the geologist is enabled to arrive at something like a history of the globe—imperfect, it may be, but still sufficient to show the numerous changes its surface has undergone, and the varied and wonderful races of plants and animals by which it has been successively inhabited. To map out the various mutations of sea and land, from the present moment to the earliest time of which we have any traces in the rocky strata; to restore the forms of extinct plants and animals; to indicate their habits, the climate and conditions under which they grew and lived,—to do all this, and trace their connection up to existing races, would be the triumph, as it is now the aim, of all true geology.

Theoretical and Practical Bearings of the Science.

9. Such are the objects and scope of what may be termed **THEORETICAL GEOLOGY**—a science of comparatively recent growth, but of high and enduring interest. The problems it proposes to solve are among the most attractive that can

engage the ingenuity of man—leading him from his own position and connection with this planet, back through all its former phases and conditions, to the time when it came fresh and glowing from the hand of its Almighty Maker. As a legitimate cultivator of natural science, the geologist bases his deductions on numerous and well-observed facts; observes, collects, and arranges with honest and scrupulous care; and avoids the vain and ignorant speculations of the cosmogonist as much as the astronomer eschews the delusions of astrology. His object is to unfold the history of our globe; and whether in collecting data among the hills and ravines, by the sea-cliff or in the mine, or in arranging and drawing from these data the warranted conclusion, the earnest student will find geology at once one of the most healthful and exhilarating, as it is intellectually one of the most attractive and expanding of human pursuits.

10. Nor is the science, in a PRACTICAL point of view, of less importance to man. Deriving, as we do, all our metallic and mineral stores from the crust of the earth, it is of vast utility to be able to distinguish correctly between mineral substances, to determine in what positions they occur, and to say with certainty where they are, or are not, to be found. Again, the engineer in tunnelling through hills, in cutting canals, excavating harbours, sinking wells and the like, must, to do his work securely and with certainty, base in a great measure his calculations on the nature of the rocky materials to be passed through—a fact he can only obtain by geological deduction. The architect also, in selecting his material, by attending to the formation and texture of the rock, and observing how it has been affected by the weather in the cliffs and ravines, may often avoid the use of a wasting and worthless building-stone; while his knowledge of geological succession will enable him to detect in different localities the same material. The farmer, in like manner, whose soils are either formed by the disintegration of the subjacent rocks, or are affected by their retentive or absorbent nature, may learn much useful information from the demonstrations of geology. The study of physical geography in relation to the migrations and habitats of plants and animals, the acclimatising and cultivation of certain animals and vegetables, and even touching the development and health of man himself, can only attain the character and position of a science, if treated in connection with the fundamental doctrines of geology. The artist and landscape-gardener may also reap substantial benefit from a study of the leading facts of the science; and though such a knowledge, of itself, will make neither artists nor land-

scape-gardeners, it will often prevent them from committing unpardonable outrages on the landscapes of nature.

11. To acquire a knowledge of the science sufficient for the purposes indicated in the preceding paragraph, is not a very difficult task. The objects of research are scattered everywhere around us. Not a quarry by the wayside, not a railway-cutting through which we are carried, not a mountain-glen up which we climb, nor a sea-cliff under which we wander, but furnishes, when duly observed, important lessons in geology. A hammer to detach specimens, and a bag to carry them in—an observing eye, and a pair of willing limbs, are nearly all the young student requires for the field; and by inspection and comparison in some museum, and the diligent use of his text-book, he will very shortly be able to proceed in the study as a practical observer. Let him note every new and strange appearance, handle and preserve every specimen with which he is not familiar—throwing nothing aside until he has become acquainted with its nature; and thus, besides obtaining additional knowledge and facilitating his progress, he will shortly acquire the invaluable power of prompt and accurate discrimination.

RECAPITULATION.

In the preceding chapter we have endeavoured to explain that the object of geology is to investigate the structure of the earth, in as far as that structure is accessible to human investigation. Combining all we know of this rocky structure, from the top of the highest mountain to the bottom of the deepest mine, it forms but an insignificant film of the four thousand miles which lie between the surface and centre of the globe. This film or outer portion is spoken of as the "crust of the globe" in contradistinction to the interior portions, of which we can know nothing by direct observation. Thin as this crust may appear, it is nevertheless the theatre of extensive, diversified, and ceaseless changes. Every change arising from the violence of the earthquake and volcano, every modification resulting from the waters that cover or course its surface, every operation dependent on atmospheric agency, as well as all that appertains to the development of vegetable and animal life, is performed on or within this shell. It is thus at once the theatre of all geological change, and the index to all true geological history. By noting the composition of its rocks, their position and succession, the space over which they spread, and the fossils they contain, the geologist is enabled to indicate the

condition and appearance of the world during former epochs—to speculate as to the distribution of sea and land, the influence of climate, and the kind of vegetables and animals that successively peopled its surface. To arrive at a rational history of the successive phases of the globe, is the aim of theoretical geology ; to discover and classify its mineral stores—to ascertain their position and determine their abundance, so as to make them available for the industrial purposes of life, is the task of the practical geologist. Combining its economic with its speculative bearings, Geology becomes a science of high and enduring interest, deserving the study of every cultivated mind, and the encouragement of every enlightened government.

II.

CAUSES OPERATING ON THE CRUST OF THE GLOBE, AND MODIFYING ITS STRUCTURE AND CONDITIONS.

12. THE aim of geology, as stated in the preceding chapter, is to furnish a history of the structure and conditions of the earth. Had the exterior crust been subject to no modifying causes, the world would have presented the same appearance now as at the time of its creation. The distribution of sea and land would have remained the same ; there would have been the same surface-arrangement of hill, and valley, and plain ; and the same unvarying aspects of vegetable and animal existence. Under such circumstances, geology, instead of striving to present a consecutive history of change and progress, would have been limited to a mere description of permanently enduring appearances. The case, however, is widely different: from the moment the earth began to revolve round the sun, there has been one continuous series of change and progression. Winds, frosts, and rains ; springs, streams, and rivers ; tides, waves, and currents ; the shivering of the earthquake, and the upheaving of the volcano ; the alternate growth and decay of plants and animals ; and the universal operations of chemical agency, are all continually tending to separate, to combine, and to re-arrange the materials composing the crust of the earth.

13. In a comparatively fixed and stable region like our own,

one is apt to underrate the effects of these modifying causes. We see from our infancy the same hills and valleys, the same fields and streams, and are apt to infer that little or no change is going forward. As we note more attentively, however, we begin to perceive that changes have taken place—are yearly, daily, and hourly taking place around us. We see the river deepening its channel, the tides and waves wearing away the sea-cliffs, the frosts and rains crumbling down the rocky surface, the estuary filling up with sand-banks, and the lake in which we laved our young limbs becoming shallower, and a large portion of it transformed into a marsh, luxuriant with reeds and rushes. If all this has taken place during some twenty or thirty years, what, we naturally ask, may have taken place during centuries?—and what the amount of change, when centuries have been multiplied by centuries? Nay, more, if a few years can work such changes in a district of comparative rest and stability, what are we to expect over the whole surface of the globe, and especially in regions whose lakes are like our seas, and compared with whose rivers our streams are tiny threads of water—regions of extremes, where rains fall in torrents—where glacier, and avalanche, and iceberg rend and bear away—where inundations deface, earthquakes submerge, and volcanoes elevate and give birth to new mountains? Extending his views in this manner, the attentive observer soon discovers that the crust of the earth, instead of being a thing of permanence and stability, is subject to incessant change; and as he carries his thoughts over the lapse of centuries, he can readily perceive how sea and land may have frequently changed places—how old mountain-ranges may have sunk, and new ones been elevated—the beds of lakes become alluvial tracts, and the sands and muds of former shores been converted into solid strata.

14. The causes which produce these changes being universal and incessant in their action, and the basis of all geological phenomena, it is necessary the student should have a clear understanding of their nature and mode of operation. Taking it for granted that he is acquainted with the spheroidal figure of the earth, its daily rotation on its own axis, and its annual revolution round the sun; with the atmosphere that envelopes it, and thus forms the medium in which clouds, rains, winds, storms, and changes of temperature are elaborated, and through which the heat and light of the sun are diffused; with the distribution of the earth's surface into land and water; and with the general geographical features of the different continents—their mountain-ranges, plateaus, plains, and valleys, as well as with the

general characters of the plants and animals that people their surface,—we shall proceed to explain more minutely the nature of the causes now modifying the crust of the earth.

15. These modifying causes may be arranged under the following heads :—The **ATMOSPHERIC**, or those operating through the medium of the atmosphere ; the **AQUEOUS**, or those arising from the operations of water ; the **ORGANIC**, or those depending on vegetable and animal growth ; the **CHEMICAL**, or those resulting from the chemical action of substances on each other ; and the **IGNEOUS**, or such as manifest themselves in connection with some deep-seated source of heat in the interior of the globe. These causes, being dependent on the original constitution of our planet, are of course everywhere present, and in ceaseless operation ; acting silently and almost imperceptibly in one region, and violently, and on a gigantic scale, in another ; scarcely appreciable in their results at one period, and producing at another the most extensive alterations on the surface-configuration of the earth.

Atmospheric Agencies.

16. Of these modifying causes, the **ATMOSPHERIC**, though not the most powerful, are by far the most general in their operations. The atmosphere envelopes the earth on every side ; acts mechanically by its currents of wind, chemically by the gases of which it is composed, and vitally in its being indispensable to vegetable and animal life. Thus winds blow and drift about all loose material, carrying them away from one spot, and piling them up in another. In this way extensive sandy tracts are formed along the shores of many countries, and the loose sands of the African deserts are carried forward year after year over new expanses. The gases of the atmosphere (oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid), partly by their own nature, and partly by the moisture always less or more present in the air, exert a wasting or *weathering* influence on all rock-surfaces—softening, loosening, and crumbling them down, to be the more readily borne away by currents of wind and water. Frost is also a powerful atmospheric agent. The rain and moisture that enter into the fissures of cliffs, and between the particles of all rocky matter, are often frozen during winter, and in this state of ice expand and force apart these rocks and particles. When thaw comes, the loosened particles fall asunder, and thus, in all latitudes where frost occurs, vast waste is every winter effected. It is also by the action of

frost that the avalanche, glacier, and iceberg are formed: the avalanche of snow and ice which is launched from the mountain side, carrying masses of rock and soil before it—the glacier or ice-lake that forms in the mountain glen above, and slowly grinds its way to the valley below—and the iceberg, detached from some arctic shore, that floats its burden of rock and gravel to warmer latitudes, there to drop them on the bottom of the ocean. As the diffuser of heat, and light, and moisture, the atmosphere exerts important influences on vegetables and animals, making the surface teem with life in one region, and rendering it a barren and solitary waste in another. The electric discharge of the thunder-storm, which occasionally shivers cliffs, is also elaborated in the atmosphere; and it is the medium in which vapours, rains, hail, snow, and other aqueous manifestations, are incessantly engendered.

Aqueous Agencies.

17. The modifying causes arising from the operations of water are in like manner universal and incessant. This AQUEOUS AGENCY manifests itself most prominently in the mechanical effect of rains, springs, streams, rivers, waves, tides, and oceanic currents. Every shower that falls exerts a degrading or wasting influence on rocks, soils, and all exposed surfaces. By entering the pores of rocks and soils, rain softens and loosens their coherence, and thus renders them more easily acted upon by currents of wind or water. Land-floods or freshets also arise from rains, the melting of snow, and hail-storms; and the periodical rains of the tropics produce inundations and similar phenomena. Springs, which are discharges of water from the earth, act both chemically and mechanically on the crust. Hot springs, and those whose waters contain carbonic acid, act chemically, by dissolving the rocks through which they percolate in the crust of the earth; and when they come to the surface they deposit the matter which they held in solution. Such springs are known as *mineral springs*, and generally indicate the kind of rock or mineral through which they have passed. Thus some are saline, or contain salt; some chalybeate, or contain iron; some calcareous, or contain lime; while others give off sulphureous vapours, and various mineral admixtures. Such springs act chemically in dissolving and re-depositing mineral matter; and they act mechanically, in wearing and transporting, like all running waters. Streams and rivers act chiefly in a mechanical way, and their

influence depends partly on the nature of the rocks through which they run, the rapidity of their currents, and their size or volume of water. If the rocks through which they pass be of a soft and friable nature, they soon cut out channels, and transport the eroded material, as mud, sand, and gravel, to the lower level of some lake, or to the bed of the ocean. Their cutting, as well as transporting power, is greatly aided by the rapidity of their currents; hence the power of mountain torrents compared with the quiet and sluggish flow of the lowland river. The effect of rivers on the crust is thus twofold—namely, to waste and wear down the higher lands, and to bear along the material, and deposit it in valleys, in lakes, or in the ocean, in layers of mud, sand, and gravel. By such deposits lakes are silted or filled up, and become alluvial valleys; estuaries converted into level plains; and even large tracts reclaimed from the sea. As with rivers, so with tides, waves, and ocean currents: they all waste and wear away the sea-cliffs in one region, and deposit the degraded material in the state of mud, sand, gravel, and shingle in some sheltered locality.

18. By the operations of water, as described in the preceding paragraph, vast changes have been effected, and are still in process of being effected, on the surface of the globe. There is scarcely a country in the world which does not present numerous glens and ravines and river-channels, all cut through the solid strata by the action of water; hence known as *valleys of erosion*, (*erosus*, gnawed or wasted away). The rocky matter thus ground and worn away is borne down by every flood, in the form of mud, sand, gravel, and shingle; and when the water comes to rest, these fall to the bottom as sediment. Every person must have observed the rivers in his own district, how they become muddy and turbid during floods of rain, and how their swollen currents eat away the banks, deepen the channels, and sweep away the sand and gravel down to some lower level. And if, during this turbid state, he will have the curiosity to lift a gallon of the water and allow it to settle, he will be astonished at the amount of *sediment* or solid matter that falls to the bottom, (*sedere*, to settle or sink down). Now, let him multiply this gallon by the number of gallons daily carried down by the river, and this day by years and centuries, and he will arrive at some faint idea of the quantity of matter worn from the land by rivers, and deposited by them in the ocean. In the same way as one river grinds and cuts for itself a channel, so does every stream and rill and current of water. The rain as it falls washes away what the winds and frosts have loosened; the rill takes it up,

and, mingling it with its own burden, gives it to the stream ; the stream takes it up and carries it to the river, and the river bears it to the ocean. Thus the whole surface of the globe is worn and seamed and grooved and channeled—the higher places being continually worn down, and the wasted material carried to a lower level. By this process lakes are silted up and become marshes or plains, and estuaries and shallow seas are converted into tracts of alluvial land. The delta of the Nile (so called from the Δ , or delta-like shape of the space enclosed by the two main mouths of that river), the sunderbunds or river-islands of the Ganges, the swamps of the Mississippi and Amazon, are examples of such deposits on a large scale ; but every stream and current of water, however insignificant, is less or more performing a similar operation. Such deposits, when examined, are found to be composed of layers of mud, vegetable drift, clay, sand and gravel, containing, in greater or less abundance, the remains of plants and animals peculiar to the country through which the river flowed. In this manner layers or strata of sedimentary matter are forming at the present moment, and in like manner must they have been formed during all past ages of the world.

19. The general tendency of aqueous agency, whether operating as rivers or as tides, waves and ocean currents, is to wear down the higher portions of the earth's crust, and transport the material as sediment to some lower level. This sedimentary matter being merely floated (or *mechanically* suspended, as it is termed, in contradistinction to a *chemical* solution) in the current, the moment the water assumes a state of quiescence it begins to fall to the bottom. The heavier bodies, as shingle and gravel, fall first, next the finer particles of sand, and ultimately the light flocculent mud or clay. In this way we can account for the gravelly beach of one district, the sandy shore of another, and the muddy bottom of a third. The clayey mud of the great Chinese rivers is carried far out into the Yellow Sea, thereby giving it a name, and rapidly converting it into a shallow basin ; the turbid waters of the Ganges discolour for many leagues the Bay of Bengal ; and the mud of the Amazon is observable many hundred miles out in the Atlantic. Thus, year after year a portion of the Himalayan Mountains is deposited in the Bay of Bengal, and the waste of the Andes strewed along the bottom of the Atlantic.

Organic Agencies.

20. The ORGANIC CAUSES tending to modify the crust of the globe are those depending on vegetable and animal life. The term organic (from the Greek *organon*, a member or instrument) is applied to plants and animals, as being supplied with certain organs or members for the purposes of nutrition and growth. Their structure is said to be *organic*, and they are termed organised bodies in contradistinction to minerals, which are *inorganic*, and whose increase takes place by external additions, and not through the instrumentality of any peculiar organs. The growth and decay of vegetables are yearly adding to the soil, at the same time that they protect the surface from the wasting action of rain, frost, and the like. Accumulations of vegetable growth form peat-mosses, jungle, cypress and other swamps ; and the spoils of forests and the vegetable drift of rivers form rafts (like those of the Mississippi)—all of which are adding to the solid matter of the globe. Coal, as will afterwards be seen, is but a mass of mineralised vegetation ; and, under favourable conditions, submerged peat-mosses, jungles, forests, and drifted rafts, would form similarly mineralised deposits. As vegetable growth is specially influenced by heat, moisture, and conditions of climate, so in certain regions will the influence of vegetation, as a modifying cause, be more felt than in others. As familiar instances of vegetable agency, we may point to the peculiar plants that spring up on the newly formed sand-dunes by the sea-shore, and protect the surface from being blown and scattered about by the winds ; to the peat-bogs of Ireland, Scotland, and Holland, often extending over thousands of acres, and varying from ten to forty feet in thickness ; to the pine-rafts yearly floated down by the Mississippi ; to the cypress-swamps of America ; to the “tarai” or jungle-swamps of India ; and to the mangrove growth that binds and protects the mud islands of the Ganges and Niger.

21. The manner in which animal life tends to modify the crust of the globe, is chiefly by adding their waste secretions or coverings. It is true that the bones and other remains of the larger animals are often buried in the mud of lakes and estuaries—there in time to form solid petrifications ; but such an effect is trifling compared with shell-beds, infusorial accumulations, and coral-reefs. Thus, gregarious mollusca—as oysters, cockles, and mussels—live in beds of considerable thickness, and, if entombed among the silt of estuaries, will in time form beds of shelly limestone like

those occurring in the solid crust of the earth. The recent discoveries of the microscope have shown that many accumulations of whitish mud in lakes and estuaries, as well as certain deposits in bogs and valleys, now silted up, are almost wholly composed of the siliceous and calcareous coverings of *infusorial* animalcules, (so called from being abundantly found in putrid vegetable infusions). These flinty and limy cases are of extreme minuteness; but being aggregated in countless myriads, they constitute thick layers, as in the estuary of the Elbe, in the plains of the Amazon, and in many of our own bogs; just as the mountain-meal (bergmahl of the Swedes), the edible clay of the Indians, and the polishing slate of Tripoli, are analogous deposits of an older date. In treating of the rock-formations, we shall afterwards see what an important part these minute creatures have played in adding to the solid material of the globe; and were the accumulations now taking place in our seas, and lakes, and rivers, investigated with proper care, we should in all likelihood discover them still playing as important a part in the formation of solid material.

22. By far the most notable, as it is undoubtedly the most wonderful, exhibition of animal agency—or rather of animal-chemical agency—is that of the coral zoophyte. Endowed with the power of secreting lime from the waters of the ocean, the coral animalcule rears its polypidom, or rocky structure, in the warmer latitudes of every sea—and there constructs reefs and barriers round every island and shore, where conditions of depth and current are favourable to its development. Many of these reefs extend for hundreds of leagues, and are of vast thickness, reminding one of the strata of limestone belonging to the older formations. The zoophyte is apparently limited in its range of depth, operating only where perpetually covered by the tide, and downwards to eighteen or twenty fathoms. Within this range it is ceaselessly active,—elaborating lime from the ocean, and converting it into a home for itself and its myriad progeny. Let any one examine a branch of common Madrepore coral, count the number of cells or pores in it, remember that each pore is the abode of an independent but united being, and then reflect on the thousands of miles of coral reef now in process of formation, and he will be lost in reflection on the numerical exuberance of animal life. The coral-reef occurs in all stages of development, from the living and growing branch, to a compact and solid aggregation of limestone, scarcely to be distinguished from some of the softer marbles. Partaking of the elevation or depression of the sea-bottom, and being subject to the influence of the waves and

breakers, a coral-reef is not a mere narrow ledge composed of various beautifully formed corals, but a barrier of limestone more or less compact, mingled with sand, shells, sponges, and other marine exuviae, and often presenting a surface above the waves weathered and converted into soil capable of sustaining a scanty vegetation.

Chemical Agencies.

23. The modifying causes resulting from CHEMICAL ACTION are numerous and complicated. Thus, the accumulation of the coral-reef is partly a chemical process; the operations of all mineral springs are more or less chemical; and many of the phenomena connected with volcanoes and earthquakes may arise from a similar source. Laying aside, in the mean time, the changes taking place in the interior of the rocky crust by which some strata are consolidated and hardened, others softened and dissolved away, metallic veins formed, and new compounds elaborated by the union of different substances, we shall confine our remarks to those chemical results which chiefly appear on the surface. The formation of the coral-reef, we have said, is partly a chemical process. The limy matter is no doubt secreted by the polype, but its subsequent consolidation into a compact rocky mass is the result of chemical action among the particles of carbonate of lime, of which it is almost wholly composed. The same sort of coherence takes place among shell-beds and calcareous sands, often rendering them as hard and compact as ordinary building-stone. Deposits of limestone from what are termed calcareous or petrifying springs, are strictly of chemical origin, as are also the *stalactites* arising from the dropping of calcareous water from the roofs of caverns, and the *stalagmites* which incrust their floors. In this way are formed calcareous tufa or calc-tuff, calc-sinter, the travertin of Italy, and other calcareous accumulations. As with lime, so in like manner with flint or siliceous matter—many hot springs like those of Iceland and the Azores depositing siliceous incrustations, or permeating loose material, and binding them together with a hard siliceous cement. Clay or alumina, sulphur, and other mineral matters, are also deposited largely from springs, or arise as sublimations from fissures connected with volcanic action. Deposits of salt, natron, and the like, are also of chemical origin; and under the same head may be classed all asphaltic or bituminous exudations, like the pitch lakes of Trinidad and Barbadoes.

Igneous or Volcanic Agency.

24. The last and most important of the modifying causes to be noticed, are those depending on IGNEOUS or VOLCANIC AGENCY. The operation of water, whether in the form of rain, rivers, or waves, is to wear down the higher portions of the earth's crust, and transport them to lower localities—thus tending to reduce all to one smooth and uniform level. This equalising tendency of water is mainly counteracted by the operations of fire—the earthquake and volcano breaking up, elevating, and producing that diversity of surface so indispensable to variety in vegetable and animal life. These two forces—the aqueous and igneous—may be considered as antagonistic to each other, and to them may be ascribed the principal modifications that have taken, or are still taking place, in the crust of the globe. Igneous agency, as depending on some deep-seated source of heat with which we are but little acquainted, manifests itself in three grand ways—viz., in Volcanoes, in Earthquakes, and as a Gradually Elevating Force.

25. The effect of volcanoes is to elevate either by simple expansion and upheaval of the crust, or by the repeated accumulations of matter ejected from their interior. We can readily conceive of large areas of the earth's crust being fractured and borne up by volcanic force from beneath, and in this way many of our mountain-chains and hill-ranges have primarily originated. At certain places openings or *craters* occur (so called from their cup-like form, *krater* a cup or bowl), and from these are ejected at intervals liquid lava, fragments of rock, ashes, dust, hot mud, and various gaseous exhalations. Flowing from the crater over the surrounding country, the lava, after cooling, frequently forms thick layers of rocky matter, varying in compactness from hard basalt to open and porous pumice-stone. Ashes, dust, and mud accumulate in a similar manner, eruption after eruption adding to the height of the mountain, and ultimately giving to it a conical form. In this way have the cones of Etna, Vesuvius, and Hecla been formed; and in this way have these eruptions modified the surrounding country, filling up valleys, creating crags and cliffs, enveloping fields, and burying cities, as in the case of Pompeii and Herculaneum. As with these within the historic period, so with upwards of two hundred others in various parts of the globe; and looking at many of our older hills and mountain-ranges, we discover abundant proofs of a similar origin and mode of formation. As yet we have spoken of volcanoes as taking place only on land; but

we have also evidence of their occurrence in the ocean, creating shoals and islands like many of those in the Pacific. In the one case, volcanoes are termed *sub-aerial*, in the other *sub-aqueous*. When taking place under water, the volcanic discharges of lava and ashes will be interstratified and mingled with the sedimentary matter of the ocean—an occurrence we shall afterwards find very common among the older rock-formations.

26. Earthquakes, which are intimately associated with volcanoes, produce modifications of the earth's crust chiefly by fracture, subsidence, and elevation. During their convulsions the level plain may be thrown into abrupt heights, rent with chasms and ravines, or even be submerged beneath the ocean. Their general tendency is, therefore, like that of volcanoes, to diversify the surface of the globe, and to render irregular what aqueous agency is perpetually striving to render smooth and uniform. During violent convulsions, extensive alterations are sometimes produced on the face of a country; and of such we have frequent and abundant record within the historical era. Even within the present century, we know that a large tract at the mouth of the Indus was submerged, while a new district was raised from beneath the ocean; that the coast of Chili for many leagues was permanently elevated from six to ten feet; and that in the West India Islands, harbours have been sunk, towns destroyed, and rivers changed from their former courses.

27. The gradually elevating forces connected with igneous agency are less obvious than the volcano and earthquake, but not on that account the less important or general. At present it is known, from repeated observation, that the shores of the Baltic are gradually rising above the waters; and large tracts along the western shores of South America exhibit similar uprisings. Such uprisings, not being very perceptible, are apt to be under-estimated, or even disregarded; but when we cast our eye along the shores of our own island, and discover various ancient beaches or shore-lines stretching along above the present sea-level, at elevations varying from ten, twenty, forty, and sixty, to one hundred feet and upwards, we are then prepared to admit that such gradual uprisings must be extensively modifying the appearance and conditions of the globe. We know that the generic distribution of plants and animals is governed, in a great measure, by altitude above the sea; and one can readily perceive how such gradual uprisings of the land must be gradually changing the character and distribution of the life upon its surface. Nor is it terrestrial existence alone that is influenced by such upheavals: the sea-

bottom is partaking of the same uprise, and marine life is even more sensitive than terrestrial to changes of depth and sea-bottom.

RECAPITULATION.

In the preceding chapter we have given a general outline of the causes now tending to modify the crust of the earth ; that is, of the principal agencies concerned in the production of all geological change. These, we have said, were the Atmospheric, the Aqueous, the Organic, the Chemical, and the Igneous, or Volcanic. By one or other of these agencies, or by a combination of them, are all the changes now taking place on the globe effected ; and as we are warranted in concluding that these agents have similarly operated through all previous time, so to them must be ascribed the formation and structure of the solid crust. Rains, winds, and frosts must have always weathered and worn down ; springs, streams, and rivers must have always cut for themselves channels, and transported the eroded material to lakes and seas, there to be spread out in layers or strata ; and in these accumulations must the remains of plants and animals have been entombed, some swept from the land, and others buried as they lived in the waters. In this way, and by calling in the aid of chemical and organic agency to explain the occurrence of certain mineral deposits and accumulations of vegetable and animal growth, we can account for the formation of all rocks which occur in layers or strata. On the other hand, as volcanic agency now breaks up the crust of the earth, elevating some portions and submerging others, and anon casting forth, from rents and craters, masses of molten matter, and showers of dust and ashes, so in former times must the same agency have fractured and contorted the solid strata, and cast forth molten matter, which, when cooled down, would form rock-masses, in which no layers or lines of deposit would appear. Besides modifying the earth's crust by upheaval and disruption, volcanic agency also produces a peculiar class of rocks ; and these are found abundantly in all regions, from the recent lavas of Etna and Vesuvius, to the granites, greenstones, and basalts of our own hills. We have thus, on and within the globe, a variety of agents ceaselessly active, and ceaselessly productive of change. The result of their operations is, and has ever been, the production of new rocks and new rock arrangements ; and these we shall now proceed to consider.

III.

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT, STRUCTURE, AND COMPOSITION OF THE MATERIALS CONSTITUTING THE CRUST OF THE GLOBE.

28. LAYING aside all speculations as to the interior constitution of the globe, concerning which we can know nothing by actual observation, we are warranted in saying, that the external portion, or crust, accessible to human research, is composed of a variety of solid substances known as *rocks*. No matter whether in the form of soft and yielding clay, of loose sand and gravel, of beds of chalk and sandstone, or of masses of granite—all are termed by geologists, *rocks* and *rock-formations*. Of such substances is the crust of the earth composed, and in one form or other we pass through them wherever we go beneath the surface—whether tunnelling through the hills, or sinking coal-mines in the level valleys. How these rocks are arranged, and of what they are composed, are the subjects of our present inquiry.

Stratified or Sedimentary Arrangement.

29. Judging from the operations of the modifying causes explained in the preceding chapter, one would naturally infer that all matter deposited as sediment in water would be arranged in layers along the bottom. Fine mud and clay readily arrange themselves in this manner, and sand and gravel are also spread



Stratified Arrangement of Sediment.

out in layers or beds more or less regular. In course of time a series of beds will thus be formed, lying one above another in somewhat parallel order, thicker, it may be, at one place than another, but still preserving a marked horizontality, and showing

distinctly their lines of separation or deposit. Thus the miscellaneous *debris* (a convenient French term for all waste or worn material, wreck or rubbish) borne down by a river will arrange itself in such layers along the bottom of a lake—the shingle and gravel falling first to the bottom, next the finer sand, and, lastly, the impalpable mud or clay, as represented in the preceding diagram. In course of time a series of layers will be formed, not perfectly parallel, one above another, like the leaves of a book, but still spread out in a flat or horizontal manner. One cannot look at the face of a quarry, or pass through a railway-cutting, without observing how very generally the rocks are arranged in beds and layers. These layers are technically known as *strata*; hence all rocks arranged in layers—that is, arising from deposition or sediment in water—are termed *aqueous*, *sedimentary*, or *stratified*.

Igneous or Unstratified Arrangement.

30. On the other hand, when we examine the rocky matter ejected from volcanoes, we observe no such lines of deposit, and no such horizontality of arrangement. In general, they break through the stratified rocks, or spread over them in mountain masses of no determinate form—here appearing as walls, filling up rents and chasms, there rising up in huge conical hills—and in another region flowing irregularly over the surface in streams of lava. When such rocks are quarried or cut through, they do not present a succession of layers or strata, but appear in *amorphous* masses; that is, masses of no regular or determinate form, (*a*, without, and *morphè*, form or shape). Thus, in connection with the stratified rocks, they present something like the annexed appearance,—A A A being stratified or sedimentary rocks, B B being the igneous.



Stratified and Unstratified Rocks.

Referring to their origin, they are spoken of as *igneous* or *volcanic*; and in contradistinction to the aqueous rocks, they are termed the *unstratified*. We have thus, in the crust of the globe, two great divisions of rocks, the STRATIFIED and UNSTRATIFIED—the one depending on the operations of water, the other resulting from the operations of fire; and, as we shall afterwards

see, to one or other of these divisions do all rock-formations belong, however much broken up, displaced and contorted, or how great soever the changes that have subsequently taken place in their mineral composition.

31. Having been spread or strewn over the bottom of seas and lakes in the form of sediment, the original position of the stratified rocks must have necessarily been less or more horizontal. A bed of mud, for example, may be thicker in one part than in another, or it may thin out and altogether disappear, its place being taken by a deposit of sand or gravel; but still its general deposition would be flat or horizontal. The stratified rocks, when broken up by earthquakes and volcanoes, will lose this horizontality, and be thrown into positions more or less inclined and irregular. Nay, by the violent and repeated operation of volcanic forces, they may be thrown on edge, may subside in basin-shaped troughs and hollows, or be bent and contorted in the most strange and fantastic manner. Such appearances are frequent in sea-cliffs, in the sides of ravines, in railway-cuttings, and in quarries; and geologists speak of such faces or exhibitions of strata as *sections*—that is, *cuttings through*, exhibiting the order of relation among the several strata. The following section, for instance, exhibits strata at A in a *horizontal* position; at B in an *inclined* position; at C in a highly inclined position, or *on edge*; and at D, thrown or *tilted up*. The angle at which a stratum inclines to the horizon



Horizontal and Inclined Stratification.

is called its *dip*; and strata are accordingly said to dip at an angle of ten, twenty, or thirty degrees, as the case may be. When an inclined stratum comes to the surface, as at E, its edge is called the *outcrop*, and the line of outcrop is termed its *strike*. Thus we speak of the strike of a stratum being from east to west, and its dip to the north or south. When strata dip in opposite directions



Unconformable, Bent, and Contorted Strata.

from a ridge or line of elevation, as at F, the axis is termed *anticlinal* or *saddleback*; and when they dip towards a common line

of depression, as at G, the axis is said to be *synclinal*, and the depression so formed is spoken of as a *trough* or *basin*. When bent and twisted, as at H, they are termed *contorted*; and the frequent bendings are spoken of as *flexures*. When strata lie upon each other in parallel order, they are said to be *conformable*; but when one set reclines upon another at a different angle, as at K, they are termed *unconformable*. In the diagram, for example, the horizontal series at K are *unconformable* to, or rest *unconformably* on, the inclined series beneath them.

32. Rocks of igneous origin present themselves in the crust of the earth, either as *disrupting*, *interstratified*, or *overlying masses*. Thus, when igneous matter forces its way through the stratified rocks, and fills up the rents and fissures, it is termed *disrupting*, as at A; when, having passed through the strata, it spreads over their surface in sheet-like masses, as at B, it is then said to be *overlying*; and when these discharges have taken place at the bottom of the sea, and have been in turn covered over by new deposits of sediment, they then appear as *interstratified* with the true sedimentary rocks, as at C. Occasionally the interstratified matter appears



Overlying, Interstratified, and Disrupting Masses.

to have been ejected in the state of dust and ashes, and to have subsided as sediment in the ocean, there to be covered up by true aqueous debris; but in such cases, an examination of the particles of the rock will generally determine its volcanic origin. Where volcanic dust and mud have mingled themselves with the sedimentary matter of the ocean, and been subsequently consolidated into strata, it is often impossible to distinguish between such compounds and rocks of true aqueous origin; and for all practical purposes they may be regarded as ordinary sedimentary rocks.

33. The fissures and fractures produced in the rocky crust by volcanic agency are known by such terms as *faults*, *slips*, *hitches*, &c.; and when filled up with injections or infiltrations of mineral matter, they are spoken of as *dykes*, *lodes*, and *veins*. In the annexed diagram, A represents a slip or hitch, where one portion of the strata seems simply to have slipped down, while another portion has been hitched up; B represents a fault, where the strata are not only displaced, but thrown up at different angles; C a dyke,

where the fissure has been filled with igneous matter, in the form of a dyke or wall ; and D a suite of lodes or veins passing partly



Slip, Fault, Dyke, and Veins.

through unstratified and partly through stratified rocks. Into the origin of these displacements the student at this stage is not required to enter, further than to remember that the tendency of every earthquake and volcano is to rend and shiver the solid strata ; that where the shock is unaccompanied by discharges of igneous matter, the fissures will simply be slips and faults ; that where it is accompanied by igneous discharges, the molten matter will force its way through, and fill up the fissures, producing dykes ; and that where the rents are subsequently filled up by infiltrations of mineral and metallic matter, the result will be lodes and veins.

Structure and Texture of Rocks.

34. Having seen that the crust of the earth is composed of stratified and unstratified rocks, and that these have been frequently broken through and displaced by volcanic agency, the student should next acquaint himself with the structure and mechanical characteristics of the different rock masses. The terms employed to designate the external structure are not very numerous, nor are they very difficult to be remembered. Thus, speaking of stratified rocks, we employ the terms *stratum* and *bed*, when the deposit is of some thickness ; *layer* or *band*, when it is thin and holds a subordinate place among the other beds ; and *seam*, when a rock of a peculiar character occurs at intervals among a series of strata. For example, the geologist speaks of a seam of coal occurring among strata of clay and sandstone, and of a layer of ironstone occurring in a bed of shale. When certain kinds of strata split up into thin plates or laminae, they are said to be *slaty*, *flaggy*, *fissile*, and *shaly*. Roofing-slate, for instance, is fissile or slaty ; some sandstones used for paving are spoken of as flags or flagstones. When igneous rocks appear in columns, like the basalts of Staffa and the Giant's Causeway, they are termed *columnar* ; and when the columns are irregular and not very distinct, they are said to be *sub-columnar*. Certain

greenstones (called whinstones in Scotland, and used for road-making) appear in large square-like blocks—a structure which is styled *tabular* or *cuboidal*; and when igneous rocks of this class break up in masses of no regular shape or form, they are termed *massive* or *amorphous*.

35. The internal structure of rocks is also designated by terms expressive of the appearances they present when broken up by the hammer. Thus a rock is said to be *granular* when made up of distinct grains or particles, like granite; *saccharoid* (like loaf-sugar) when the grains have a uniform crystalline aspect, as in many statuary marbles; *porous* when full of pores or of open texture like pumice-stone; *vesicular* or *cellular* when full of little cavities like certain kinds of lava; *fibrous* when the texture is composed of fibres like asbestos; and *acicular*, or needle-shaped, when the fibres are distinct and pointed. *Conglomerates* are rocks composed of water-worn pebbles—in other words, consolidated gravel; and *breccias*, or rocks of *brecciated* structure, are those in which the fragments are sharp and angular, from the Italian *breccia*, a crumb or fragment. When a rock is easily broken or crumbled down, it is said to be *friable*; *earthy* when the texture is soft and dull; *compact* when of close and firm texture; *crystalline* when sparkling or shining; and *sub-crystalline* when the lustre is somewhat dull and less apparent. The preceding are the terms most frequently employed by the geologist in describing rocks and rock-masses; the minuter distinctions of minerals, and the crystals of which they are composed, belong more especially to the study of Mineralogy.

Mineral Composition of Rocks.

36. The composition of the rocks constituting the crust of the globe may be viewed in two ways, either chemically or mineralogically. To the chemist every substance in nature is resolvable into certain primary elements; and of such elements about sixty have been discovered—some gaseous, some liquid, some solid, some metallic, and others non-metallic. In examining a piece of marble, for example, the chemist resolves it into carbonic acid and lime; or, more minutely, into oxygen, carbon, and a metallic element called calcium. It is enough for the mineralogist, on the other hand, to know that it is a limestone, and to describe it as pure or impure, as soft or compact, as earthy or crystalline. The geologist, again, regards more especially its position and mode of occurrence, with what rocks it is associated, what fossils

are imbedded in it; and, from these and other data, endeavours to arrive at the conditions under which it was formed, and the aspect of the world at the period of its formation. In drawing such conclusions, he is greatly aided by the deductions of chemistry and mineralogy; hence the importance of these sciences to the practical geologist. For elementary purposes it is enough to know the more familiar chemical substances and their leading compounds, such as the *gases*, oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and chlorine; the *metals*, iron, gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, tin, mercury, manganese, arsenic, and antimony; the *metaloids* (or metal-like bodies), sodium, potassium, aluminum, silicium, calcium, and magnesium, which, when united with oxygen, form the *earths* and *alkalies*—soda, potass, alumina or pure clay, silix or flint, lime, and magnesia; and the *non-metallic* bodies, carbon, sulphur, and phosphorus. For the same purpose the student should endeavour to make himself familiar with a few of the leading minerals and rocks; and this he cannot more easily do than by the handling of actual specimens in a cabinet or museum. The following explanatory list may aid him at this stage of his studies:—

Sand—Gravel—Shingle.—Sand is an aggregation of water-worn particles, derived from rocks and solid substances: it is generally composed of quartz-grains, but may also be composed of particles of shells, &c. Gravel is the term applied when the particles or fragments vary from the size of a pea to that of a hen's egg; and shingle, when the fragments are larger and less rounded than those of gravel.

Sandstone—Grit—Conglomerate.—Sandstone is simply consolidated sand, the particles having been compacted by pressure, or held together by lime, clay, oxide of iron, or some other cementing material. Grit is the term applied when the particles are hard and angular, that is, "sharper" than in ordinary sandstones. Conglomerate, sometimes known as *puddingstone*, is a compact aggregation of gravel and pebbles of all sizes—in other words, consolidated gravel.

Mud—Clay—Silt.—These terms are applied to the fine impalpable particles of matter worn and borne down by water, and deposited at the bottom of seas and lakes. Mud and silt, as composed of miscellaneous debris, are more friable than clay, which is plastic, and consists of siliceous and aluminous particles.

Shale—Slate—Claystone.—Shale is merely consolidated mud and silt, assuming a structure less or more laminated or slaty. In slate the clayey particles predominate, and the consolidation is often so perfect that the rock assumes a semi-crystalline aspect. Claystone is massive and not slaty, and is of various origin. Clayey or argillaceous (*argilla*, clay) rocks, when breathed on, emit a peculiar and distinctive odour, which is easily recognised.

Marble—Limestone—Chalk—Marl.—The basis of all these rocks is carbonate of lime; that is, lime in chemical union with carbonic acid. The term marble is applied to the compact and crystalline varieties used for ornamental and statuary purposes; limestone, to the duller and less compact kinds used for mortar and in agriculture; and chalk, to the softer and earthier varieties. Marl is a loose term generally applied to friable compounds of lime and clay, and called clay-marl or marl-clay, as the one or other ingredient predominates. As limestone is dissolved with violent effervescence by sulphuric and muriatic acids, its presence may be easily detected by a drop of either of these liquids.

Gypsum—Selenite—Dolomite.—Gypsum is sulphate of lime, which, when calcined, forms the well-known plaster-of-Paris. Selenite is the term given to gypsum when crystallised and transparent. Dolomite (after the geologist Dolomieu) is a crystalline magnesian limestone; that is, a variety of limestone containing a large per-centage of magnesia.

Quartz—Quartz-rock—Flint—Chert.—The basis of all these minerals is silic. Rock-crystal is pure crystallised silic; quartz is an impure silic, as the white hard crystals of granite, and the white grains of sandstone. Quartz-rock is massive quartz occurring in veins or strata. Flint is impure nodules of silic; and chert is an admixture of flint and limestone.

Felspar—Felspar-rock.—The soft greyish crystals occurring in granite are of felspar. They can be easily scratched with a knife, while the quartz crystals resist it. Felspar-rock and felspar-porphry are amorphous rocks of felspar forming mountain masses.

Mica—Mica-schist.—The glistening, scaly, and transparent portions of granite are mica, so called from the Latin verb *mico*, I glisten. It forms the principal ingredient in a set of slaty rocks called mica-schists; and it occurs in minute scales in many sandstones, giving to them a silvery appearance.

Hornblende, so named from its horny fracture, is a dark-green mineral found in granites and greenstones. It also occurs massive, and in a slaty rock called hornblende-schist.

Granite—Syenite—Gneiss.—Ordinary granite is composed of crystals of quartz, felspar, and mica. When mica is wanting, and its place supplied by hornblende, the rock is called syenite, from Syene in Upper Egypt, where it occurs in abundance. There are several varieties of granite, arising from such interchanges of minerals. Gneiss is a stratified rock composed of the same ingredients as granite, and apparently derived from its disintegration.

Actynolite—Augite—Hypersthene.—Greenish or greenish-grey minerals, which occur largely in the earlier and igneous rocks. They will be best distinguished by examination of actual specimens.

Basalt—Greenstone—Trap-rock—Trachyte—Lava.—These are rocks of igneous origin, and are chiefly distinguished by their hardness, compactness, and colour. Basalt is a close-grained, dark-coloured rock, often occurring in columns more or less regular; greenstone is not so

close in the grain, is lighter in colour, and occurs either in tabular or amorphous masses. Trap-rock (so called from the step-like aspect it gives to hills composed of it) is a name which includes a great variety of igneous rocks, the general characters of which are easily recognised in the field. Basalt and greenstone may be included under the term trap, but the name is more generally applied to the looser and less crystallised masses, known as trap-tuff, wackè, amygdaloid, &c. Trachyte is a trap or volcanic rock, so called from its rough, meagre feel. Lava, the name given to all molten discharges from recent volcanoes.

Chlorite (from the Greek word *chloros*, greenish-yellow) is a mineral of a greenish-black colour, and generally of a foliated structure, in which condition it forms the principal ingredient in the greenish rock called chlorite slate or chlorite schist.

Talc.—A transparent magnesian mineral resembling mica, but softer and not elastic. It enters largely into the early slates, called talcose slates or talc schist.

Steatite—*Soapstone*—*Serpentine*.—All rocks containing steatite have a greasy or soapy feel, and are in this way easily distinguished. On this account some varieties have been termed soapstones. Serpentine, so called from its varying colours (like the back of a serpent), is one of the magnesian minerals.

Salts.—Salts of soda and potash, which occur in plains and marshes, are easily distinguished. Common salt, which is found in all sea-water, in many springs, and in vast masses, as rock-salt, is a chloride of sodium.

Bitumen is an inflammable mineral substance, found limpid as in naphtha, liquid as in rock-oil or petroleum, sluggy as in mineral pitch, and solid as in asphalt. It can likewise be distilled from coals and bituminous shales.

Coal—*Jet*—*Lignite*.—Coal is a well-known mineral, and may be briefly described as mineralised vegetable matter. It occurs in many varieties, as anthracite, which is non-bituminous, caking-coal, cannel-coal, &c., which are all less or more bituminous. Jet is a compact lustrous variety of coal usually worked into ornaments; and lignite (*lignum*, wood), or brown-coal, is a variety of recent formation, in which the woody structure is distinctly apparent.

The Metals are either found *native*—that is, in a pure state—or combined with mineral matter, in the condition of *ores*. Gold and silver are often found native in pellets or nuggets; almost all the other metals occur in *ores*. Galena, for instance, is a sulphuret of lead; the little yellow cubes found in roofing-slate are iron pyrites, or sulphuret of iron; the brilliant green malachite, used for brooches, &c., is a carbonate of copper.

RECAPITULATION.

The object of the foregoing chapter has been to point out the arrangement, the structure, and composition of the rocks consti-

tuting the crust of the globe. Wherever a section of the crust has been exposed, whether in natural cliffs and ravines, or in artificial quarries and mines, the rocks are found to be arranged either in layers or in indeterminate masses. Those arranged in layers have been evidently formed by the agency of water—those in shapeless masses by the agency of fire. The one set are termed the stratified, aqueous, or sedimentary—the other the unstratified, igneous, or volcanic. As a natural consequence of their origin, the igneous rocks break through, displace, and derange the original horizontal strata, which now appear inclined at various angles, fractured and contorted. The positions of the stratified rocks are indicated by such terms as plane, inclined, on edge, anticlinal, synclinal, bent, and contorted. Their dip or inclination is measured in reference to the horizon; their strike or line of outcrop is traced along the surface. The positions of the igneous rocks in reference to the stratified are spoken of as disrupting, overlying, and interstratified; and the fractures or rents caused by volcanic convulsion, as fissures, faults, dykes, and veins. The structure and texture of rocks, whether of aqueous or of igneous origin, are distinguished by a variety of terms expressive of their appearance as they occur in the crust, or when broken up with the hammer. Thus the layers of the stratified rocks are spoken of as strata, beds, seams, bands, flags, and schists, according to their thickness; while the unstratified occur as columnar, sub-columnar, tabular, massive, and amorphous. As to the texture or internal structure of rocks, it is extremely varied, and is defined by such obvious terms as hard, compact, crystalline, saccharoid, granular, porous, vesicular, and the like. The composition of rocks, we have seen, may be viewed either in a chemical or mineralogical light; but, in whatever light they may be viewed, it is enough for the beginner in geology to be able to distinguish, at sight, such ordinary rocks as sandstone, conglomerate, shale, clay-slate, limestone, chalk, gypsum, coal, quartz, mica, felspar, granite, gneiss, greenstone, basalt, trap-tuff, lava, and a few of the ores of the more abundant metals.

IV.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE MATERIALS COMPOSING THE EARTH'S CRUST INTO SYSTEMS, GROUPS, AND SERIES.

37. IN order to arrive at a knowledge of the past conditions of the earth, it is necessary to examine not only the mineral characters of the different strata, but to ascertain the nature of their fossils, their order of superposition, and other relations. By such an investigation we are enabled to determine their relative ages, to judge whether they were deposited in lakes, in estuaries, or in seas, and to say what kind of plants and animals flourished at the time of their formation. At the present day, the layers of mud, clay, sand, and gravel depositing in tropical estuaries and seas, will contain less or more the remains of plants and animals peculiar to the tropics ; the deposits forming in temperate regions will contain, in like manner, the remains of plants and animals belonging to temperate climates ; and should a time arrive when these layers are converted into solid strata, the fossilised plants and animals will become a certain index to the conditions of the region at the time when they were deposited. As with existing deposits, so with the strata constituting the solid crust : the lowest must have been formed first ; the series beneath must be older than that above it ; strata abounding in shells, corals, and other marine remains must have been deposited in the sea, while those containing fresh-water plants and animals give evidence of a lake or estuary origin ; igneous rocks, which displace and break through any set of strata, must be more recent than these strata ; and if another set of strata overlie these igneous rocks, then must they have been deposited in water at a period subsequent to the igneous eruptions. These and similar propositions are so apparent, that the student can have little difficulty in comprehending the principles upon which geologists have proceeded in classifying the rock-formations of the globe.

38. The principal guides to geological classification are—order of superposition among the strata, their mineral composition, and the nature of their imbedded fossils. The most superficial observer must have noticed the different aspects of the rocks in

different districts, and a little closer inspection will enable him to detect that one set lies always beneath another set, and that while certain shells and corals are found in the lower series, the upper series may contain only the remains of terrestrial vegetation. Thus, in sinking a shaft in the neighbourhood of London, we would pass through thick beds of soft plastic clay, layers of sand, and strata of water-worn flint gravel; at Cambridge we would pass through strata of chalk; in the east of Yorkshire, through strata of fine-grained sandstones, and soft yellowish limestones called oolite; at Newcastle, through strata of shale, coal, and coarse-grained sandstones; in Forfarshire, through strata of red and greyish sandstones and conglomerates; while on the flanks of the Grampians, we would pass through beds of roofing-slate and hard crystalline schists. On a minuter inspection of these strata, we would find that one series lay beneath, or was older than another series; that the chalk, for example, lay beneath the clays of London; that the yellow limestones of York lay beneath the chalk; that the coals of Newcastle were deeper seated than the oolites of York; and the red sandstones of Forfar still deeper than the coal-bearing strata. Further, when we began to examine the fossil contents of these different strata, we should find each set characterised by peculiar plants and animals—some containing marine shells and corals, some the remains of large reptiles and fishes, and others replete with the debris of terrestrial vegetation. By these methods we would soon be enabled to identify the chalk strata of Cambridge with those of Kent, the oolites of York with those of Bath, the coal-measures of Newcastle with those near Glasgow, and the slates of the Scottish Highlands with those of Cumberland and Wales. As with the rocks of Britain, so with those of every country investigated by geologists; and thus they have been enabled to arrive at a pretty accurate classification of the stratified rocks, both in point of time and mineral character.

39. About the beginning of the present century, the stratified rocks were classified as PRIMARY, TRANSITION, SECONDARY, TERTIARY, and RECENT; and though this arrangement has since been superseded by a more minute and perfect classification, the terms are still in daily use by geologists. Thus we hear and read of "secondary and tertiary rocks;" "rocks of the transition period;" and "fossils of the tertiary epoch." The terms, as well as the ideas they convey, are so firmly grafted on the language of geology, that it is necessary at this stage to present a tabular view of this arrangement:—

RECENT.—All superficial accumulations, as sand, gravel, silt, marl, peat-moss, coral-reefs, &c. Contain the remains of existing plants and animals only partially fossilised.

TERTIARY.—Local and limited deposits of regular strata occurring above the chalk. Contain the remains of plants and animals not differing widely in general character from those now inhabiting the globe.

SECONDARY.—Embracing all the strata known as chalk, oolite, lias, coal-measures, mountain limestone, and old red sandstone. These strata occur largely in many parts of the world, and contain fossil plants and animals of species totally different from those now existing.

TRANSITION.—Strata of slaty and siliceous sandstones, calcareous shales, and limestones containing few or no fossil plants, and the remains of no higher animals than crustacea, shell-fish, and zoophytes.

PRIMARY.—All slaty and crystalline strata—as roofing-slate, mica-schist and gneiss, very hard and compact, and totally destitute of organic remains.

40. By a more extensive examination of the strata in different countries, and especially by a more minute investigation of their fossil contents, these formations of the earlier geologists have since been subdivided into systems, groups, and series. This new arrangement has been founded either on mineral or on fossil distinctions—such differences being sufficient to warrant the conclusion that each set of strata was formed during successive epochs, and under different conditions of external nature. The terms formation, system, group, &c., are somewhat loosely employed by geologists; but in the succeeding chapters we shall use the term *system* to signify any great assemblage of strata that have a number of mineral and fossil characters in common; the term *group*, to denote any portion of a system marked by a closer resemblance of mineral and fossil character; the term *series*, to designate any portion of a group which has some very marked character, either mineral or fossil; and so on with other subdivisions of the stratified formations. A system may thus comprehend several groups, a group several series, and a series may have several distinct stages at which some peculiar forms of life appeared in greatest abundance. Proceeding upon this principle, the stratified rocks may be subdivided into the following systems and groups:—

- I. **POST-TERTIARY SYSTEM**, comprising all alluvial deposits, peat-mosses, coral-reefs, raised beaches, and other recent accumulations.
Remains of plants and animals belonging to species now existing.

- II. **TERTIARY SYSTEM**, embracing the "Drift," and all the regularly stratified clays, marls, limestones, and lignites, above the Chalk ; arranged into pleistocene, pliocene, miocene, and eocene groups. *Remains of plants and animals for the most part extinct, but not differing widely from existing species.*
- III. **CHALK OR CRETACEOUS SYSTEM**, embracing the chalk and green-sand groups. *Remains of plants and animals chiefly marine, and belonging to species now extinct.*
- IV. **OOBITIC SYSTEM**, comprising the wealden strata, the upper and lower oolite, and the lias. *Remains of plants and animals (the most remarkable being huge reptilia) belonging to families now extinct.*
- V. **NEW RED SANDSTONE SYSTEM**, embracing saliferous marls, magnesia limestone, and red sandstones, known as the Triassic and Permian groups. *Remains of plants and animals not very abundant ; belonging to families now extinct.*
- VI. **CARBONIFEROUS SYSTEM**, embracing the coal-measures, the mountain limestone, and the carboniferous slates. *Remains of plants and animals abundant—the distinguishing features being excess of tropical vegetation in the coal-measures, and marine shells and zoophytes in the mountain limestone.*
- VII. **OLD RED SANDSTONE OR DEVONIAN SYSTEM**, embracing the yellow sandstone, red conglomerate, and grey flagstone groups. *Remains of fishes abundant, of other animals rare, and of plants very few and imperfect.*
- VIII. **SILURIAN SYSTEM**, embracing the upper and lower silurian groups, or the Ludlow, Wenlock, and Llandeilo series. *Remains of peculiar crustaceans, mollusca, radiata, and zoophytes.*
- IX. **METAMORPHIC OR NON-FOSSILIFEROUS SYSTEM**, embracing the clay-slate, mica-schist, and gneiss groups. *All hard and crystalline rocks devoid of fossils.*

41. Such are the stratified rocks when arranged in systems and groups ; and, so far as geologists have been enabled to discover, there is no deviation from this order of succession. It must not be supposed, however, that all these groups are found at any part of the crust, lying one above another like the coats of an onion ; on the contrary, only one or two of the groups may be developed, and these very scantily, and not in immediate succession. All that is meant by order of succession among the stratified rocks is, that wherever two or more systems come together, they are never found out of place ; that is, the chalk is never found beneath the oolite, oolite beneath the coal, or coal beneath the old red sandstone. In Fifeshire, for example, the

carboniferous system immediately overlies the old red sandstone ; in Durham, the new red sandstone overlies the coal ; in Yorkshire, the oolite overlies the new red sandstone, and the chalk the oolite ; in Kent, the tertiary strata overlie the chalk ; and thus, though we do not find every series at one and the same place, we always find them occurring in the order above described. The old red sandstone and silurian, for instance, might be absent, and the coal in this case might rest on the clay-slate ; or the new red sandstone and oolite might be absent, and chalk might rest on the coal ; or even all of these might be wanting, and chalk immediately overlie the clay-slate. Still, there would be no reversal—a higher system would be overlying a lower ; and the inference to be deduced would simply be, that the region in which any set of rocks was wanting, had been dry land during the deposition of these strata. This order of succession, or *superposition*, as it has been termed, is the great key to the solution of all geological problems ; and so soon as an observer has fixed one point in the series, he knows infallibly his position in the history of the crust, no matter in what region he may be placed, or what the distance from the scene of his former observations. In determining his position, mineral characteristics may sometimes fail him, and a sandstone of the oolite may scarcely be distinguishable from a sandstone of the coal-measures ; but palæontological characteristics are so constant, that the moment he discovers a few fossils, he is at once enabled to pronounce whether he is on an oolitic or on a carboniferous district.

42. The constancy of fossil characteristics has suggested the classification of the sedimentary rocks into certain great divisions, according to the types of living beings that predominated at certain epochs ; but as these divisions are not yet very clearly determined, it may be enough for the pupil at this stage to understand the application of the following terms :—

CAINOZOIC PERIOD (Recent Life),	{ Post-tertiary or present epoch. Tertiary epoch.
MESOZOIC PERIOD (Middle Life),	{ Cretaceous epoch. Oolitic epoch. Triassic epoch.
PALÆOZOIC PERIOD (Ancient Life),	{ Permian epoch. Carboniferous epoch. Devonian epoch. Silurian epoch.
AZOIC PERIOD (Void of Life),	{ Non-fossiliferous epoch, or Metamorphic system.

Instead of four periods, it has been proposed to reduce them to three, viz., the Neozoic, embracing the Cainozoic and Mesozoic; the Palæozoic; and the Azoic. In either case, all that is meant by the arrangement in the mean time is, that during certain epochs there was a certain typical resemblance among the beings then peopling the globe; that one phase of resemblance prevailed from the Silurian to the end of the Permian epoch, and that another equally marked prevailed from the commencement of the Triassic up to the present period.

43. Besides these classifications of the stratified rocks according to their mineral characters, their fossil contents, and their order of superposition, there has also been attempted an arrangement of the unstratified or igneous masses. These, we have already seen, appear among the sedimentary strata without order or arrangement—heaving them out of their original horizontal positions, breaking through them in mountain masses, or overspreading them in the manner of liquid lava. Owing to this irregularity of origin, they are often better known by their mineral composition than by the order of occurrence. Still, it is customary to speak of them as GRANITIC, TRAPPEAN, and VOLCANIC, meaning, by the term Granitic, the igneous rocks which, like granite, are usually found associated with the older strata; by the term Trappean, the igneous rocks most frequently associated with the secondary and tertiary strata; and by the term Volcanic, those that have made their appearance during the present epoch. It is true that it is often next to impossible to distinguish certain volcanic rocks from the more ancient traps; and it is also well known that granitic effusions occur among tertiary strata. Still, taking the three classes on the large scale, and looking at the stratified systems among which they usually occur, it will be found of essential service to retain the subjoined classification:—

VOLCANIC,	{ Lava, trachyte, scorix, &c., associated with recent accumulations.
TRAPPEAN,	{ Trap-tuff, amygdaloid, greenstone, basalt, &c., usually associated with tertiary and secondary strata.
GRANITIC,	{ Granite, syenite, porphyry, &c., usually associated with transition and primary strata.

RECAPITULATION.

The purpose of the preceding chapter has been to exhibit the classification adopted by geologists in describing the various rock-formations which constitute the crust of the globe. The

basis upon which such a classification is founded is either mineral composition, fossil contents, or order of superposition. By these aids the order of sequence among the stratified rocks has been pretty accurately ascertained; hence the subdivision of formations into systems, groups, and series. In making such an arrangement, it is not affirmed that any portion of the crust exhibits these systems one above another like the coats of an onion, but simply that one series always succeeds another in determinate order, and that though several series may be wanting in certain districts, such series as are present are never found out of their order of succession. Beginning at the surface, we have, in descending order—

1. Post-tertiary or recent accumulations.
2. Tertiary strata.
3. Cretaceous or chalk system.
4. Oolitic system.
5. New red sandstone system.
6. Carboniferous system.
7. Old red sandstone, or Devonian system.
8. Silurian system.
9. Metamorphic system.

The first eight of these systems are spoken of as the *Fossiliferous Rocks*, because they contain, less or more, the remains of plants and animals; the rocks of the last, which contain no traces of vegetable or animal life, are termed the *Non-fossiliferous*. Referring to the fossil contents of the different strata, the term *Neozoic* (new life) is applied to the recent, tertiary, and upper secondary epochs; the term *Palæozoic* (ancient life) to the lower, secondary, and transition epochs; and the terms *Azoic* (or destitute of life) to the primary or non-fossiliferous epoch. As with the stratified, so with the unstratified rocks: some acknowledged plan of classification is necessary, and that which arranges them into *Volcanic*, *Trappean*, and *Granitic*, is perhaps the most intelligible, as well as the most generally adopted. By employing the classification above indicated, every geologist, in treating of the rocks of a district, speaks a language intelligible to other geologists, and all the more intelligible that it is a classification founded on facts in nature, and not a mere arbitrary or technical distinction.

THE IGNEOUS ROCKS, AND THEIR RELATIONS TO THE STRATIFIED
OR SEDIMENTARY SYSTEMS.

44. As previously stated, the igneous rocks have no determinate position in the crust of the earth. They derange, break through, and flow over the stratified formations, are of every age, and often of very complex mineral composition. With respect to their origin, geologists have yet no satisfactory theory to offer, and generally content themselves by ascribing all igneous phenomena to some original source of heat existing within the globe. Various chemical hypotheses have from time to time been broached; and we know that the union of certain chemical substances takes place with a violent evolution of heat; but the occurrence of volcanoes, earthquakes, escapes of heated vapours, and thermal springs, are by far too numerous and general to be accounted for on any principle of chemical union with which we are acquainted. Admitting the existence of some general and deep-seated source of heat to which all igneous rocks owe their origin, we shall proceed in the mean time to describe their characters and relations as classified under the heads GRANITIC, TRAPPEAN, and VOLCANIC.

Granitic Rocks.

45. *Granite* is named from its granular composition and aspect. The typical granite is a compound of quartz, felspar, and mica, arranged in distinct grains or crystals; and all rocks partaking of the character and appearance of granite are termed *granitic*. The granitic rocks are all highly crystalline; none of their crystals are rounded or water-worn; they present no traces of deposition or stratification; and they occur in the crust as mountain masses and veins, bursting through and displacing the sedimentary strata. From these circumstances, they are held to be of igneous origin; and, as far as geologists have been able to discover, they are the most deeply-seated of all rocks—forming, as it were, the floor or foundation for all the superincumbent

formations. As the earliest of igneous rocks, they are generally found associated with primary and transition strata, tilting them up on their edges, bursting through them in dykes and veins, and variously altering their positions and mineral character. Though occurring most abundantly among primitive strata, granitic outbursts may be found among rocks of all ages, but certainly not as a marked and general feature of the period.

46. Whether occurring in veins or mountain masses, the structure of granite is irregular and amorphous. In its texture it varies from a close-grained compact rock to a coarse and loose aggregation of primary crystals. In the composition of granitic rocks, there is also considerable variety, and the student will best learn to discriminate the different species by the examination of actual specimens. Ordinary *granite* is composed of crystals of felspar, quartz, and mica,—is of a greyish colour when the crystals of felspar are dusky white, and reddish when they are coloured by the presence of iron. When the dark glassy mineral called hornblende takes the place of the mica, the rock is known by the name of *syenite* (from Syene in Upper Egypt); and when talc supplants the mica, the admixture of felspar, quartz, and talc is known by the name of *protogine*. The term *hypersthene granite* is applied to an admixture of quartz and hypersthene, with scattered crystals of mica; and *porphyritic granite*, when, in addition to the crystals composing the general mass of the rock, there are indiscriminately mingled through it larger crystals of felspar. *Serpentine* is the name given to a granitic rock composed of variously-coloured minerals—as quartz, chlorite, steatite, &c., which produce a speckled and mottled appearance, resembling a serpent's skin; hence the term. Besides the above, there are other granitic compounds, in all of which quartz, felspar, mica, hornblende, and hypersthene are the principal ingredients, and talc, steatite, chlorite, schorl, and actynolite the accidental or modifying minerals.

47. Granitic rocks are widely distributed, and form the principal mass of many of the most extensive mountain-ranges in the world. The Grampians in Scotland, the mountains of Cumberland and Cornwall in England, the Wicklow mountains in Ireland, the Dofrafelds in Scandinavia, the Alps in Switzerland, the Pyrenees in Spain, the Oural and Himalaya ranges in Asia, the Abyssinian and other chains in Africa, and the Andes in South America, are all less or more composed of granitic rocks, or of primary strata, thrown up and altered in mineral aspect by the effects of granitic intrusions. Granitic districts, partly from the

barren nature of their scanty soil, and partly from their high and elevated condition as mountain-chains and table-lands, are generally bleak and inhospitable, presenting few facilities for agricultural improvement or amenity.

48. The industrial purposes to which granitic rocks are applied, are alike numerous and important. As a durable building stone for heavy structures, like docks, bridges, lighthouses, and fortresses, the harder varieties of granite are invaluable. As an ornamental stone for monuments, halls, chimney slabs, pillars, pedestals, and the like, some varieties of granite are rapidly coming into use—the beauty and sparkle of their variegated texture, and the perfection to which they can be cut and polished, rendering their adoption peculiarly desirable. Some felspathic granites, like those of Cornwall, are easily decomposed when exposed to the weather, and in this state produce a fine impalpable clay known as *kaolin*, or China clay, and largely employed in the manufacture of the finest pottery and porcelain. *Apatite*, or crystallised phosphate of lime, is another mineral product found in veins traversing the earlier igneous rocks, and promises shortly to be of vast value in the preparation of artificial manures.

Trappean Rocks.

49. The term *trap* (from the Swedish *trappa*, a stair) was originally applied to those igneous rocks which give to many hills of the secondary period a terraced or step-like appearance. Most of these rocks seem to have been formed under water, here spread out as volcanic dust and ashes, there as flows of lava, and anon interstratified with true sedimentary matter. It is to these successional flows of igneous matter, and the subsequent unequal degradation of the interstratified aqueous rocks, that the trap-hills owe their stair-like appearance. As the granitic rocks were generally associated with the older strata, so the trappean rocks are usually connected with the secondary, throwing them up on the sides of hills, breaking through them in dykes and veins, and spreading over them in sheet-like masses.

50. In their structure and composition, the trap rocks are extremely varied—some being compact and crystalline, like basalt and greenstone; others soft and earthy, like certain trap-tuffs and claystone-porphyrries. Indeed, there is no class of rocks more puzzling either to the mineralogist or geologist, their varieties being so numerous, and their relations to the strata being often

so intricate and deceptive. The more crystalline varieties are known as basalts, greenstones, clinkstones, felspar, and felspar-porphyrries; the earthier varieties as trachytes, amygdaloids, trap-tuffs, and claystone-porphyrries. Mineralogically speaking, they are chiefly composed of felspar, hornblende, and augite, with admixtures of hypersthene, olivine, green-earth, clay, and sulphuret of iron. The *basalts* are generally known by their columnar structure, by their dark close-grained texture, and by their enclosing spherical crystals of an olive-green mineral called olivine; the *greenstones* are less compact, more granular, exhibit distinctly the crystals of hornblende, hypersthene, &c., and often contain sulphuret of iron, and are usually massive or tabular in their structure; the *clinkstones* differ little from the greenstones in composition, but are more compact, break up into slaty fragments, and emit a ringing metallic sound when struck with the hammer; the *felspar rocks* are easily distinguished by their smooth compact texture and non-crystalline aspect. The *amygdaloids* are rather earthy in texture, and are so named from the almond-shaped crystals (*amygdalon*, an almond) of calc-spar, agate, and jasper, imbedded in the mass; the *trachytes* are greenish-grey varieties, indistinctly crystalline or earthy, and so named from the rough harsh feel (*trachys*, rough) they have to the finger; the *claystone-porphyrries* are essentially of indurated clay, with imbedded crystals of felspar or calc-spar; and the *trap-tuffs* occur in every stage of texture, from soft scoriaceous masses, to compact aggregations of rocky fragments, cemented together by igneous matter. Many of these rocks are evidently showers of volcanic dust and ashes that have fallen in the seas of deposit; and others are as evidently the broken and half-fused fragments of the associated strata. Much of their perplexing variety of texture seems to have arisen from the slowness or rapidity with which they have cooled; and we know, from actual experiments, that the same mass which will yield a compact basalt when suddenly cooled, will, when subjected to a slower process, produce a soft and earthy tufa.

51. The geographical area occupied by the trap rocks is very extensive, there being few secondary districts in which they do not rise up, either in undulating conical heights, or in terrace-like hill-ranges. Indeed, all the older secondary regions—that is, those occupied by the old red sandstone and carboniferous systems—owe their surface configuration chiefly to manifestations of trap. Much of this trap is of contemporaneous origin with the sedimentary rocks among which it occurs, and is of course interstratified

with these deposits ; but a great portion also is of posterior date, and in this case occurs as disrupting and overlying masses. To enumerate the districts in which trappean compounds occur, would be to map out the countries occupied with the whole transition, secondary, and tertiary systems. In our own country, the Sidlaw, Ochil, Pentland, and Lammermuir ranges in Scotland ; the Cheviot, Cumberland, Welsh, and Derbyshire hills, in England ; and most of the hills in Ireland, are of true trappean composition. The scenery produced by assemblages of trap hills is often extremely picturesque and beautiful ; and the soil produced by the decomposition is generally so dry and productive, that the term "trap district" is usually regarded as synonymous with amenity and fertility.

52. The industrial purposes to which trap rocks are applied are numerous enough, but not of prime importance. Some basalts and greenstones make very durable building materials, but their hard and refractory character prevents their extensive use. The same may be said of the felspar-porphyrries, clinkstones, and amygdaloids, which are rarely employed where sandstones or limestones can be obtained. Their hardness, however, renders them peculiarly fitted for road material ; hence their extensive use in causewaying and macadamizing. From the *geodes* of the amygdaloids and trap-tuffs—that is, the crystals that coat or fill up the vesicular cavities in these rocks—are obtained most of the calcedonies, agates, jaspers, and carnelians, made use of by the lapidary and jeweller.

Volcanic Rocks.

53. All the igneous rocks already described are, in one sense, *volcanic*—that is, have been produced by the agency of heat in a manner analogous to that of existing volcanoes. For the sake of classification, however, it is better to limit the term to such rocks as are now in process of formation, or have been formed since the close of the tertiary epoch. It may be difficult, in some instances, to distinguish a mass of trachytic lava from one of trachytic trap-tuff ; but when the mass is viewed in connection with its associated rocks, its origin becomes readily apparent, and there is generally as little difficulty in distinguishing between recent volcanic products and trappean compounds, as there is in distinguishing between trap and granite. Volcanic rocks are therefore essentially products of the modern period, and are found, like the older

igneous rocks, either elevating, bursting through, or overlying the stratified formations.

54. Volcanic products usually appear as lava, obsidian, pumice, scorice, ashes, hot mud, and various gaseous exhalations. *Lava* is the name given to the melted rock-matter ejected from active craters, and which, when cooled down, forms varieties of volcanic tufa, trachyte, and trachytic greenstone, according to the varying proportions of felspar, hornblende, and augite. *Obsidian*, or volcanic glass, is a compact vitreous lava, in some instances scarcely to be distinguished from the slag of a glass-furnace. *Pumice* is a light porous rock, caused by the disengagement of gases in the mass while in a state of fusion; in other words, the solidified froth or scum of molten rock-matter. *Scorice, cinders, ashes*, and the like, are of the same mineral composition as the solidified lava, and seem to be produced by the explosive force of steam or other gases. *Volcanic mud*, which is found bubbling out from many fissures and hot springs, has a fetid sulphurous odour, and, in cooling and solidifying, is often found to contain crystals of sulphur and gypsum. The gaseous products of volcanoes are for the most part sulphurous, and from this source is mainly derived the sulphur employed in the useful arts. All of these products are found less or more in every volcanic region; and the mode in which they are discharged, their varying admixtures, and the different appearances they assume, according to the rapidity or slowness with which they are cooled, afford highly instructive lessons to the geologist. Here the explosive force of highly heated vapours and molten matter breaks through and deranges the strata of the crust; there lava fills up the fissures, or, issuing from some vent, flows down the mountain side, filling up valleys, damming up river channels, and spreading over fertile plains; here scorice and ashes are showered forth, borne abroad by winds, and scattered over land and sea; there heated vapours are perpetually exhaling from rents and fissures, and incrusting their sides with mineral and metallic compounds. Discharge after discharge from volcanic vents soon gives rise to mountain masses; or, if spread along the bottom of the sea, is in turn overlaid by true sediment, and thus produces alternations of aqueous and igneous rocks. The molten matter also cools unequally—here forming a porous pumice, there a rough open tufa; here a granular trachyte, and there a compact mass, scarcely distinguishable from basalt or greenstone. And just as igneous forces are acting at the present day under the eye of the observer in the production of volcanic rocks, so must they have acted

in former ages in the production of trappean and granitic compounds.

55. Although volcanic rocks are luckily unknown in our own country, they occur extensively in many regions of the globe. In Europe there are three well-known centres of volcanic action—viz., that of Italy, to which Etna and Vesuvius belong; that of Iceland or Hecla; and that of the Azores. In Asia there are ample evidences of volcanic action along the borders of the Levant, the Caspian and Red Seas; in the Indian Ocean; throughout the whole of the Indian Archipelago; and northward through the Philippine, Japan, and Aleutian islands. In the Antarctic Ocean several cones of active eruption were discovered by our voyagers in 1841; and in the Pacific, the islands of New Zealand, the Sandwich, and other groups, are for the most part the results of volcanic action. In the Atlantic, the Canaries, Cape de Verd, Ascension, and other islands skirting the western coast of Africa, are well-known seats of volcanic action; while in the West Indies, and along the entire continent of America, from the islands of Terra del Fuego (Land of Fire), northward through the Andes and Rocky Mountains, are numerous volcanic vents in a state of greater or less activity. In these centres of igneous action many of the volcanoes seem to be *extinct*; some are merely smouldering or *dormant*; while others are incessantly *active*, either ejecting rocky matter from their craters, or rending the surrounding country by earthquake convulsions.

RECAPITULATION.

The products described in the preceding chapter constitute one of the great divisions into which the rock masses of the globe have been arranged. Though containing no fossil record of the kind of plants and animals which have successively peopled the earth—and in this respect of less value in enabling us to decipher its history—they are still important monuments of past change; monuments in which we can trace the troubled features of the world's former surface—its alternations of hill and valley, of sea and land, and of many of those external conditions which give character and colouring to organic life. In this respect they are of prime importance; and it is only by studying their relations to, and the manner in which they have affected the stratified rocks, that we can ever hope to solve many of the most intricate problems in geology. Their arrangement into GRANITIC, TRAPPEAN,

and VOLCANIC, though partaking more of a mineralogical than of a geological distinction, is not without its value, so long as the student remembers that granite, though the deepest-seated igneous rock, may also be associated with strata of all ages, and that trap-rock, though most abundantly developed during the secondary period, may also be found in connection with strata of the earliest epochs. Bearing in mind these facts, and remembering also how similar many of these rocks are in mineral composition, and that they all occur in connection with the stratified formations—as *disrupting, overlying, or interstratified masses*—the student will readily perceive that it is chiefly in their mineral and mechanical bearings that he has to deal with them. Leaving special instances of igneous operation to be discussed in connection with the several stratified formations, we may briefly recapitulate that—

The VOLCANIC comprises lava, trachyte, obsidian, trachytic greenstone, pumice, scoriae, ashes, mud, sulphur, &c.

The TRAPPEAN comprises basalt, greenstone, clinkstone, felspar-porphry, amygdaloid, trap-tuff, and tufaceous conglomerates.

The GRANITIC comprises granite, syenite, protogine, serpentine, primitive greenstone, graphic granite, and porphyry.

VI.

METAMORPHIC OR NON-FOSSILIFEROUS SYSTEM, EMBRACING THE GNEISS, MICA-SCHIST, AND CLAY-SLATE GROUPS.

56. WITHOUT adhering to the common belief that granite forms the floor or basis on which all the stratified systems repose, it may at least be confidently asserted that granitic compounds upheave and break through the lowest known strata, and in this sense are certainly under-formed or deeper-seated than any other rocks as yet discovered by geology. Assuming, therefore, that the granitic group immediately underlies, and is intimately associated with, the lowest stratified rocks, we obtain a starting-point in the crust from which to commence an intelligible description of the systems that follow. The *Non-fossiliferous* system is so termed from its containing no remains of plants or animals, so far as geologists have been enabled to discover. For the same reason, it has also been termed the *Azoic*, or

destitute of life, in contradistinction to the upper systems, which are all less or more fossiliferous. The name *Metamorphic* refers, on the other hand, to its mineral characteristics, and implies that the original structure and texture of its rocks have undergone some internal change or metamorphosis. At present these rocks are all less or more crystalline; their lines of stratification are often obliterated, or but faintly perceptible, and their whole aspect is very different from what is usually ascribed to rocks originally deposited in water. This change may have been brought about by the application of external heat and pressure, or it may be the result of some peculiar chemical action among the particles of which the rocks are composed. In whatever way the metamorphosis has been effected, we see clearly that a change has taken place in the original sedimentary character of the strata, and that matter which at first consisted of water-worn debris—as silt, clay, and sand—has now been converted into hard, shining, and crystalline rocks. It must be remembered, however, that though mineral metamorphism is peculiarly the characteristic of this set of strata, it is by no means confined to gneiss and mica-schist; for, as we shall afterwards see, many sandstones of the later systems have been converted into quartzite or quartz-rock, many shales into jaspery-hornstones, and earthy limestones and soft chalk into sparkling saccharoid marbles.

Gneiss and Mica-Schist Groups.

57. We arrange these groups under one head, for this reason, that though there is often a sufficient mineral distinction between gneiss and mica-schist, when viewed on a large scale, there is, after all, very little difference in their geological character and history. In whatever state of aggregation the particles of gneiss may have been when originally deposited, we know now that it is a hard, tough, crystalline rock, exhibiting curved and twisted lines of stratification, and composed in the main of quartz, felspar, mica, and hornblende. Mineralogically speaking, it differs from the granitic rocks with which it is associated chiefly in this, that while the crystals of quartz, felspar, &c. are distinct and entire in granite, in gneiss they are broken, water-worn, and confusedly aggregated. Hence the general belief is, that gneiss or gneissose rocks are but the particles of granite weathered and worn, carried down by streams and rivers, and deposited in the seas of that early period. What is thus affirmed of the sedi-

mentary origin of gneiss is much more apparent in mica-schist, which is often finely laminated and distinct in its lines of stratification. This distinction arises from the greater attrition the particles have undergone, and from the greater proportion of mica entering into its composition in the form of fragmented flakes or scales. There is, however, a great similarity between the two sets of rocks—beds and bands of gneiss interlacing and alternating with beds of mica-schist, and gneissose rocks frequently becoming so micaceous in their composition as to be undistinguishable from true mica-schists. On the whole, the two groups may be said to be composed essentially of water-worn particles of felspar, quartz, mica, talc, hornblende, and chlorite—these ingredients having been deposited in beds and strata, but afterwards consolidated and altered in their internal structure so as to have become highly crystalline, and very similar in their general character to the granite from which they were derived.

58. As a general rule, the gneiss group may be said to lie beneath the mica-schists, to be harder and less distinctly stratified, and to bear a closer resemblance to the granitic rocks, with which they are intimately associated. The mica-schists, on the other hand, are less crystalline, more finely laminated, and present more frequent alternations of strata. In neither group are the strata very regular or continuous, and when broken up and contorted by intrusions of granite—which they frequently are—it is very difficult to trace either their lines of stratification or their order of superposition. The most prevalent rocks in these groups are—

GNEISS—an aggregate of quartz, felspar, and mica.

SYENITIC-GNEISS—of quartz, felspar, and hornblende.

HORNBLLENDE-ROCK—chiefly of hornblende and felspar.

QUARTZ-ROCK or **QUARTZITE**—an aggregate of quartz, with occasional flakes of mica and crystals of hornblende.

MICA-SCHIST—a fissile or laminated aggregate of mica and quartz, with occasional crystals of hornblende and garnet.

TALC-SCHIST—of talc and quartz, and differs only in this respect from mica-schist.

CHLORITE-SCHIST—a green slaty rock of chlorite and quartz.

HORNBLLENDE-SCHIST—a slaty rock, chiefly of hornblende, with felspar or quartz.

ACTYNOLITE-SCHIST—a slaty foliated rock, chiefly of actynolite, with some admixture of felspar, quartz, and mica.

PRIMARY LIMESTONE—highly crystalline marbles, often imbedding veins and flakes of chlorite, steatite, and other kindred minerals.

The above are the principal rocks in the gneiss and mica-schist groups, and they often alternate and capriciously intermingle with each other. When they are hard and compact, they are spoken of as *rocks* (hornblende rock); when they are capable of being split up, or laminated, they are termed *schists* or *slates* (as mica-schist, hornblende slate, &c.)

59. The gneiss and mica-schist groups are widely distributed, being found flanking, less or more, all the principal mountain chains in the world. They occur in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, in the north of Ireland, along the flanks of the Pyrenees and Alps, in the Scandinavian and Oural chains, in the Himalaya and Altai ranges, in the mountains of Northern Africa, and in America, particularly in the Brazils and United States. The physical aspect of these primary or metamorphic districts is bold, rugged, and barren. Thrown into lofty mountains by the granite, and often into abrupt and vertical positions, it is chiefly among gneiss and mica-schists that those deep glens and abrupt precipices occur, which give to Highland scenery its well-known wild and picturesque effect. As already stated, the igneous rocks which upheave and disturb the gneiss and mica-schists are chiefly granitic; these upheaving, breaking through, and interstratifying with them in very complicated relations. Later igneous rocks—as porphyry, greenstone, and serpentine—are also found traversing these groups in the form of dykes and protruding masses; and occasionally still more recent effusions of trap are found passing through, not only the gneiss and mica-schists, but through their associated dykes and veins of granite and porphyry.

60. The industrial or economic products derived from the gneiss and mica-schists are by no means numerous. Several of the metallic ores—such as tin and copper, and very rarely gold—occur in veins traversing these strata. The limestones, from their highly saccharoid texture, and mottled and veined appearance, yield valuable marbles; and serpentine, when found in solid masses, produces also a very elegant material for internal decoration. Potstone, or the *lapis ollaris* of the ancients, of which jars and vases are sometimes manufactured, and amianthus or flexible asbestos, which may be woven into fabrics indestructible by fire, are both products of these rocks. The garnet, and other precious minerals, are found in the system, either in the strata themselves, or in the veins that traverse them.

Clay-Slate Group.

61. Whatever obscurity may attach to the sedimentary origin of gneiss and mica-schist, there can be no doubt as to the true aqueous character of the clay-slates and their associated strata. The clay-slate group, so familiarly known by the bluish, greenish, and purplish roofing-slates of our towns, presents a vast thickness of fine-grained, fissile, argillaceous rock, of considerable hardness, and if not of a crystalline, at least of a glistening aspect. It seems to have been originally deposited as a fine clay or silt, and then to have undergone metamorphism in a less degree than the underlying mica-schists and gneiss rocks. The prevalent colours of slate are black, green, bluish, purplish, and mottled. Some varieties are hard and splintery, others soft and perishable. The texture, though generally close and fine-grained, is not unfrequently gritty and arenaceous, and passes into a sort of flaggy sandstone. The imbedded minerals are few; these being chiefly cubic iron-pyrites, chert or siliceous concretions, and crystals of hornblende.

62. If gneiss and mica-schist were derived from the disintegration of the granitic rocks, clay-slate seems to have been derived from the same source, and also from the further and finer disintegration of the gneiss and mica-schists. In the clay-slates the quartz and mica of the original rocks appear in minute grains and flakes, and the clay of the felspar appears as impalpable sediment, destitute of the potash and soda which entered into its crystallised condition in granite. All this bespeaks the long-continued action of atmosphere and water—atmosphere and water to waste and wear down, and rivers to transport the material to some tranquil sea of deposit. In course of time the soft sediment becomes consolidated; heat or chemical agency subsequently changes its texture, and renders it hard and crystalline; and a still further alteration produces that peculiar structure



in clay-slate, known by the name of *cleavage*. What renders slate so peculiarly valuable, is its quality of being cleft or split

into thin plates or layers; and this splitting takes place, not always parallel to the lines of stratification, as in the flagstones used for pavement, but in a direction right through the beds, and often almost at right angles to them. This cleavage structure is occasionally observed in other rocks of an argillaceous or clayey nature, but more especially in clay-slate; and its origin is still a matter of doubt among geologists. From its extreme regularity and resemblance to certain kinds of crystallisation, it is generally supposed to have arisen from chemical or magnetic forces acting upon the clayey mass while in process of solidification—a supposition greatly strengthened by the fact that a similar structure has been produced in masses of clay by the artificial application of these forces.

63. Being intimately associated with the gneiss and mica-schist groups, the clay-slate partakes of many of the upheavals and disruptions which have affected these strata. Though less crystalline in its texture, and not so much broken up by igneous intrusions, its beds are in many instances curiously bent and contorted, and generally rest at high angles on the flanks of our oldest mountain chains. They are found along with mica-schist and gneiss in almost all the regions already enumerated, and form valuable deposits in the Western Highlands of Scotland, in Cumberland, and in Wales. The scenery of clay-slate districts is often wild and picturesque; but their high elevation and cold clayey soils render them sterile and unproductive.

64. The industrial applications of clay-slate are numerous and well-known. The hard fissile varieties have long yielded a most valuable roofing-material; the finer sorts are used for writing-slates and slate-pencils; and the thicker-bedded kinds are now largely employed as an ornamental stone for vases, tables, chimney-slabs, mosaic-pavement, cisterns, and other architectural purposes. The clay-slate in many districts is traversed by metalliferous veins, and from these are obtained ores of tin, copper, lead, silver, and not unfrequently gold.

RECAPITULATION.

The system described in the preceding chapter consists of three principal groups—GNEISS, MICA-SCHIST, and CLAY-SLATE. The rocks composing these groups are all less or more indurated and crystalline, have their lines of stratification indistinct, and often altogether obliterated, and, as sedimentary strata,

have evidently undergone some peculiar change in their internal structure. This change, or metamorphism, whether produced by heat, pressure, or chemical agency, has conferred upon them the term of *Metamorphic rocks*; and by this designation they are now generally known among geologists. As strata, they are the deepest or lowest in the crust of the earth, and are therefore regarded as a *Primary* or first-formed. They are also known as *Non-fossiliferous* or *Azoic* strata, from the fact that no distinct traces of plants or animals have yet been discovered in any part of the system. The terms metamorphic, primary, azoic, and non-fossiliferous; may be held as synonymous—the student ever bearing in mind that the nomenclature of Geology is at best but provisional or temporary, and must give way to new facts and the progress of discovery. As a general rule, the gneiss group lies beneath the mica-schist, and the mica-schist beneath the clay-slate; but there are frequent alternations of the rocks and schists composing the system, and these alternations are often rendered more complicated by the contortions and displacements produced by the intrusion of granitic outbursts. Though mineralogists have given to the rocks composing the system different names—as gneiss, syenitic-gneiss, hornblende rock, hornblende schist, mica-schist, talc-schist, stea-schist, chlorite-schist, &c.—it must be admitted that there are often a great similarity and frequent gradations among them. Whether this arises from their being immediately derived from the disintegration of older granitic rocks, or from the subsequent metamorphism they have undergone, it is difficult to say; but there is certainly a much closer family resemblance, so to speak, among the metamorphic strata, than there is among the strata of any subsequent system. Though flanking and forming portion of most of the older mountain chains, the primary strata do not occupy wide areas, but are tilted up at high angles, and compressed into a comparatively narrow space—producing rugged and abrupt scenery, less bold and bleak than granite, but wilder and more irregular than that produced by later formations. In an economical point of view, the system is by no means unimportant. Slate and marble of various qualities are obtained from among the strata; and the ores of tin, copper, lead, silver, and gold, are extracted from the veins that traverse the system.

VII.

THE SILURIAN SYSTEM, EMBRACING THE LOWER AND UPPER SILURIAN GROUPS, OR THE LLANDEILO, WENLOCK, AND LUDLOW SERIES.

65. IMMEDIATELY above the Metamorphic rocks, which, as far as yet discovered, are entirely destitute of fossils, there occur certain gritty and slaty beds, in which traces of organic life are occasionally detected. These beds are regarded by some observers as a separate series, and termed the *Cumbrian*, because they are found in Cumberland; and the *Cambrian*, because they also appear in North Wales. As their fossils, however, seem closely allied to those of the Silurian, it will be better, in the mean time, to consider them as the lower portion or basis of that system. These Cambrian strata, and those now termed Silurian, constitute what were formerly known as the *Greywacke* or *Transition* formation; the former term being a German word applied to certain slaty conglomerates of a grey rusty colour which occur in the series, and the latter having reference to their fossil character, and denoting the transition from non-fossiliferous to fossiliferous deposits. The term *greywacke* is now seldom employed, or employed only to designate a peculiar species of rock, and the precision of fossil inquiry has all but exploded the idea of a transition period. The rocks to which we now refer—that is, those lying between the non-fossiliferous clay-slates, and the old red sandstone—being very clearly developed in that district of country between England and Wales anciently inhabited by the Silures, the term *Silurian* has been applied to them, and the system very carefully worked out, both in its mineral and fossil aspects. It is to this system of strata so typically displayed in the counties of Montgomery, Radnor, and Salop—the Siluria of the ancient Britons—that the attention of the student is about to be directed. Before entering on the fossiliferous systems, it would be well for the student to remember that the department of his science having special reference to fossils is termed *Palæontology* (*palaïos*, ancient, *onta*, beings, and *logos*, a discourse), or that which treats of the ancient or former life of the globe; while the department

more immediately concerned with the mere rocks or strata is spoken of as *Lithology* (*lithos*, a stone), or Physical Geology. The palæontological and lithological aspects of a system are therefore two very different things, and convey much the same meaning as when we speak of the *stratigraphical* order of its rocks, and the *zoological* or *botanical* characters of its fossils. In describing the fossils of a system, the brief term *Flora* is usually employed to denote the general character of its plants, while the term *Fauna* is applied to that of its animal remains.

Lower and Upper Silurian Groups.

66. In whatever condition the metamorphic rocks were at first laid down in the seas of deposit, we have seen that a common crystalline aspect now pervades the whole series, and that the usual alternations of sedimentary matter are all but obliterated. We cannot say, for example, which stratum was originally of clay-silt, which of sand, or which of gravel. All these distinctions are effaced, and we cannot arrive at any satisfactory conclusion as to the waves and tides and currents by which they were aggregated, or the nature of the seas in which they were deposited. The case is widely different with the Silurian strata. Every alternation is distinct and evident: beds of slaty sandstone and pebbly conglomerate, shaly mudstone, clays, and limestones follow one another in frequent succession, and present so slight a change in their mineral structure, that we can readily judge of the conditions under which they were originally deposited. Some of the sandstones are finely laminated, and bear evidence of tranquil sediment; some are ripple-marked, and testify to the presence of tides or gentle currents; while others are pebbly conglomerates, and bespeak the existence of waves and gravel-beaches, such as we witness at the present day. Of the shales or argillaceous beds, some have evidently been thrown down in deep water as soft black mud, while others have been formed in shallower bays, and contain a certain admixture of sand, with sea-shells, such as are found at no great depth from the shore. Of the limestones or calcareous strata, many are replete with the remains of corals and shells, and recall the existence of seas in which the coral-polype reared its reefs, and shell-fish congregated in beds like the oyster and mussel of our own times. Indeed, the abundant presence of fossil zoophytes, corals, molluscs, and crustaceans, tells of varying conditions of water and sea-bottom, of light and heat, of tribes

that secreted their nutriment from the ocean, or preyed on each other ; and generally of a state of things different, it may be, but still analogous to that which we perceive in existing nature.

67. The system which contains evidence of these varied conditions, consists essentially of argillaceous, arenaceous, and calcareous strata. Dark-coloured laminated shales, shales with concretions of limestone, beds of calcareous flagstone, thick-bedded sandstones and pebbly conglomerate, finely laminated micaceous sandstones and shales, and impure clayey limestones, and limestones of a concretionary structure, may be said to constitute the entire system. They have been arranged into lower and upper groups, or, taking the typical district of Wales, into the Llandeilo, Wenlock, and Ludlow series, as represented in the following synopsis :—

UPPER SILURIAN.

LUDLOW SERIES.	{	Finely-laminated reddish and greenish sandstones and shales, locally known as tilestones.
		Micaceous grey sandstone, in beds of varying thickness.
		Argillaceous limestone (Amystry limestone).
		Shale, with concretions of limestone.
WENLOCK SERIES.	{	Concretionary limestone (Wenlock limestone).
		Argillaceous shale in thick beds.

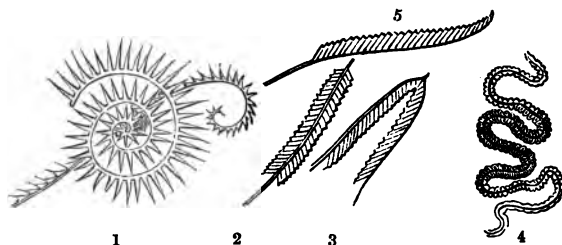
LOWER SILURIAN.

LLANDEILO SERIES.	{	Mass of shelly limestone and sandstone.
		Thick-bedded white freestone (Caradoc sandstone).
		Dark-coloured calcareous flags, and gritty flagstones or "bottom rocks."

The above synopsis represents a thickness of about eight thousand feet, and contains, of course, many alternations and gradations from freestone to sandy flags, from flagstones to shales, and from shales to calcareous flags and limestones of varying thickness and purity.

68. The fossils of the silurian system are eminently marine, and consist of numerous species and genera of zoophytes, radiata, molluscs, annelids, and crustacea. Traces of fishes are found on the uppermost verge of the system, or in beds which may be considered as the basis of the Devonian system ; and fuci, or sea-weeds, have also been detected ; but we have as yet no evidence of ter-

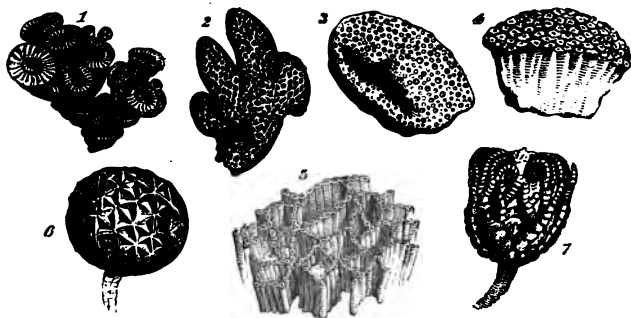
restrial life either in plants or in animals. Of course, it is not to be supposed that every portion of the system has been fully investigated: the strata, as yet examined, may have been deposited in deep water, and not till those deposited along the shores and in the estuaries of the rivers which carried down the sand and mud of the period have been equally well explored, can we pronounce with certainty either as to the kind or amount of fossil remains. As it is, numerous genera of a varied and prolific sea fauna have been detected, and these are invested with a high interest, as being the earliest evidences of life on our planet. And here let the student impress on his mind the fact, that, though the earliest known instances of vitality, there is in their structure no imperfection or trial-work. The corals of the silurian seas, the shell-fish and crustacea of this primeval period, are as complex in their organisation, and as perfectly fitted for the functions they had to perform, as the corals and shell-fish and crustacea that now throng the existing waters. Among the more characteristic fossils of the period may be noticed the *graptolites* (*grapho*, I write, and *lithos* a stone), a peculiar family of zoophytes, so called from their resemblance to the sea-pens—*sertularia* and *virgularia*—of our



1, 2, 3, 5, Graptolites; 4, Serpulites.

own seas. These zoophytes seem to have thronged the muddy bottom of the silurian waters, and are highly distinctive of the lower portion of the system. Among the corals and coralloid remains of the period, there are also many peculiar genera, remarkable either for their sponge-like appearance, or for the cup-like form of their structure. From the form or arrangement of their pores, these corals are known by such names as *cyathophyllum*, or cup-coral; *astræa*, or star-coral; *heliolites*, or sun-coral; *favosites*, or honey-comb coral; and *catenipora*, or chain-pore coral. Among the radiate, or rayed-animals, whose structure resembles that of the star-fish, several well-marked groups have been

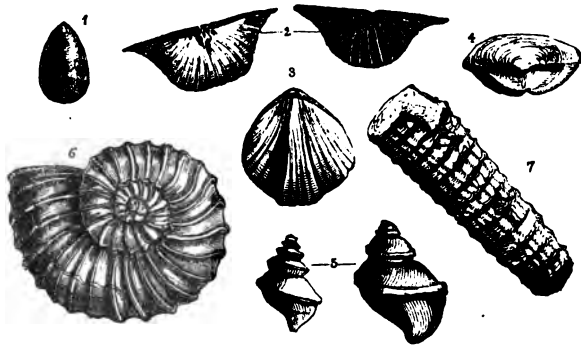
found in silurian strata. Among the most characteristic of these may be noticed the *encrinites*, or lily-like radiata (*krinon*,



1, Cyathophyllum; 2, Favosites; 3, Astrea; 4, Heliolites; 5, Catenipora; 6, Cystidea; 7, Encrinite.

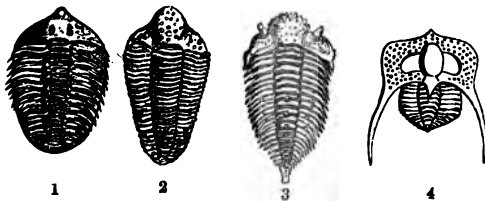
a lily), whose calcareous skeletons often constitute the main mass of certain limestone strata. True star-fishes, allied to the *uraster* and *comatula* of our own seas, have also been discovered; and certain remarkable bladder-shaped forms, called *cystidea* (*cystus*, a bladder), which seem to approach to the sea-urchins in structure. As an encrinite, with its numerous arms and feathery branches, may be regarded a star-fish fixed to the bottom by a jointed and flexible stalk, so may a cystidean, with its spherical body, composed of numerous plates, be considered a sea-urchin, attached to the bottom by a similarly jointed column. Among the molluscs or shell-fish found in the silurian strata, there are the representatives of many existing orders—bivalves allied to the cockle and pecten, others to the mussel; whorled univalves like the periwinkle, spirals like the pelican's-foot and turritella; chambered shells coiled up like the pearly nautilus, and others, massive and straight, to which we have no existing analogue. Of the bivalves, *terebratula*, *spirifer*, *orthis*, and *lingula*, are the most characteristic; of the univalves, *pleurotomaria*, *murchisonia*, and *euomphalus*; and of the chambered shells, *lituities*, *orthoceras*, and *phragmoceras*. Of Annelids—that is, ringed or worm-like creatures, so called from *annulus*, a ring—there are traces and remains in the system, and these are known by the term *serpulites*, from their resemblance to the *serpula* of existing seas. By far the most curious and abundant, as well as most characteristic of silurian fossils, are the crustaceans, termed *trilobites*, from the three-lobed-

like figure of their bodies. These creatures seemed to have swarmed in the silurian waters in various genera and species, just



1, Lingula : 2, Orthis : 3, Terebratula : 4, Spirifer : 5, Murchisonia : 6, Lituites :
7, Orthoceras.

as shrimps and prawns and crabs swarm in the seas of our own day. Different genera and species are distinguished by such terms as *asaphus*, *calymene*, *homalonotus*, *trinucleus*, &c., and may be fairly considered as the highest order of life that appeared during the silurian epoch. As already stated, remains of



1, Asaphus : 2, Calymene : 3, Encrinurus : 4, Trinucleus.

fishes are found in the very uppermost beds of the system, but these may be justly regarded as marking the dawn of the Devonian rather than the close of the Silurian era—"a long early period in which no vertebrated animals had been called into existence."

69. Respecting the extent of country occupied by silurian strata, we have as yet no very accurate information. As before mentioned, it is most typically displayed in the district of country between England and Wales; the lower series occur also in a broad

band along the entire south of Scotland, and it appears beneath the old red sandstone on the northern side of the great Caledonian basin. It is found in Scandinavia, largely in Russia and the Ourala, and very characteristically in Silesia and Bohemia. Silurian strata have also been investigated in the south of France, in Asia Minor, in Australia, and in North America, and, as the progress of research advances, will no doubt be discovered in other regions. In all of these districts the system is marked by the same peculiar fossils, and though the strata may differ very greatly in a mineralogical point of view—shales, for example, passing from soft disintegrating mudstones to hard fissile slates, sandstones passing from laminated sandstones to jaspery conglomerates, and limestones from calcareous marls to concretionary cornstones—still the moment a geologist detects graptolites, trilobites, lingulæ, orthidæ, and orthoceratites, he can have no doubt as to his position among true silurian strata.

70. The igneous rocks associated with the system are partly imbedded or contemporaneous, and partly eruptive. The imbedded traps are chiefly felspathic ash and tufa of a mixed mineral character, and have evidently been laid down in these primeval seas, sometimes in the state of overspreading or liquid lava, and sometimes in the state of showers of scorïæ and ashes. The eruptive rocks are principally felspathic—felspathic greenstones, felspar-rock, and felspar porphyry. In many instances, as in Wales and the south of Scotland, they have rendered the strata partially metamorphic, converting shales into good useful roofing-slates, sandstones into quartzite, and clays into hard jaspery hornstone. The upheavals and contortions resulting from their eruptions produce, on the whole, a varied and picturesque scenery, less abrupt and bold than that of primitive districts, and yet more diversified by hill and dale, by ravine and river-glen, than that of later or secondary periods.

71. In an industrial point of view, the rocks of the silurian system are of no great importance. Roofing-slate of various quality is obtained from the series, but of inferior value to that of the true clay-slate; flagstones are quarried in some districts, though inferior to those of the old red sandstone; freestone for building purposes is also a local product; and limestone for mortar and manure is quarried and burnt in most silurian countries. The veins that traverse the system are in general metalliferous, and from these, ores of mercury, copper, lead, silver, and gold, are extracted. Indeed, according to Sir Roderick Murchison, "the most usual original position of gold is in quartzose veinstones that tra-

verse altered palæozoic slates, frequently near their junction with eruptive rocks. Sometimes, however, it is also shown to be diffused through the body of such rocks, whether of igneous or of aqueous origin. The stratified rocks of the highest antiquity, such as the oldest gneiss or quartz rocks, have very seldom borne gold; but the sedimentary accumulations which followed, or the Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous (particularly the first of these three), have been the deposits which, in the tracts where they have undergone a metamorphosis or change of structure by the influence of igneous agency, or other causes, have been the *chief* sources whence gold has been derived."

RECAPITULATION.

In the preceding chapter we have presented an outline of the oldest or earliest fossiliferous strata as yet known to geologists. Originally designated the *Greywacke*, or *Transition* formation, and but imperfectly defined and little understood, these strata have recently undergone a most minute and careful survey, as regards both their palæontology and their order of superposition. They are largely developed in various countries, both in the Old and in the New World, and typically so in the district between England and Wales, anciently inhabited by the Silures; hence the designation by Sir R. Murchison, their first and most ardent investigator, of the SILURIAN SYSTEM. The system, though consisting, in the main, of alternations of flagstones and sandstones, of argillaceous and calcareous shales, of clayey limestones, and limestones of a concretionary structure, has been divided into *lower* and *upper* groups, and these groups again, in the typical district, into the *Llandeilo*, *Wenlock*, and *Ludlow* series. In the several series, abundant traces of lowly life have been detected, and numerous species of zoophytes, radiata, mollusca, annelida, and crustacea, figured and described. Remains of fishes have also been found in the upper beds, but these are regarded as marking the dawn of the Old Red Sandstone epoch, rather than as belonging to the close of the Silurian. Adhering to this view, the term *Silurian* should be received as indicating the first series of fossiliferous deposits, throughout the great mass of which no instance of a vertebrated animal has yet been detected. Abiding by this opinion, we obtain a well-marked palæontological basis for the Old Red Sandstone; and can view the graptolites; the favosites and heliolites; the actiniocrinites, the marsupites and cystidæ; the lingulæ,

terebratulæ, and orthidæ; the lituites and orthoceratites; the serpulites and tentaculites; the asaphus, calymene, trinucleus, and other trilobites, as the peculiar and distinctive fauna of the silurian era. These creatures are all of true marine habitat, and coupling this with the facts of ripple-mark, and with frequent alternations of shales, which were originally sea-silt; of sandstones, which point to sandy shores; of conglomerates, which speak of gravel-beaches; and of limestones, that tell of shell-beds and coral-reefs, we are carried back through the lapse of ages to a series of seas and bays and estuaries, in which the operations of life and development went forward, deepening and spreading and multiplying, even as they do now. The silurian strata seem to be extensively developed in most countries of the world, and though affording no important mineral product of themselves, are, along with the other paleozoic rocks, thought to be the chief repositories of those auriferous veinstones, whose golden metal has ever been the coveted treasure of man, whether savage or civilised.

VIII.

THE OLD RED SANDSTONE OR DEVONIAN SYSTEM, EMBRACING THE
GREY FLAGSTONE, THE RED CONGLOMERATE, AND THE YELLOW
SANDSTONE GROUPS.

72. TAKING the Coal Measures as a sort of middle point, there is generally found in the British Islands one set of reddish sandstones lying beneath, and another set lying immediately above them. By the earlier geologists, the lower set was designated the *Old Red Sandstone*, and the upper the *New Red Sandstone*; and though the progress of the science has rendered it necessary to impose certain limitations on these terms, they are still sufficiently distinctive, and easily remembered. The Old Red Sandstone system, therefore, may be held as embracing the whole series of strata which lie between the silurian system on the one hand, and the carboniferous system on the other. Certain portions of the system are peculiarly developed in Devonshire, hence the term *Devonian*, which is generally employed as synonymous with the earlier and more descriptive one of "Old Red Sandstone." Whatever term

be employed, there can seldom be any doubt as to the limits of the system, which, in the British Islands, is widely and clearly developed.

73. The Old Red Sandstone, as the name sufficiently indicates, consists of a succession of sandstones, alternating with subordinate layers of sandy shale and beds of concretionary limestone. The sandstones pass in fineness from close-grained fissile flagstone to thick beds of coarse conglomerate, and the shales from sandy laminated clay to soft flaky sandstone. The whole system is less or more coloured by the peroxide of iron—the shades varying from a dull rusty grey to a bright red, and from red to a fawn or cream coloured yellow. Many of the shales are curiously mottled—green, purple, and yellow—and present an aspect which, once seen in the field, is not soon forgotten. On the whole, shades of reddish colour may be said to pervade the system, unless in some of the lower slaty bands, which present a dark and semibituminous aspect. The slaty bands of sandstone are locally known as *flagstones* and *tilestones*; the conglomerates, which are merely solidified gravel and shingle, are fancifully termed *puddingstones*—the pebbles being mingled through the mass like the fruit in a plum-pudding; and the limestones, from their siliceous or concretionary texture, are generally known by the name of *concretionary stones*. The shales are occasionally soft and friable, and in this state are by some termed *marls*, but from their containing no lime the name is by no means appropriate.

74. Starting from the flaggy beds which top the silurian rocks, and contain the spines, scales, teeth, and other remains of fishes, the following may be taken as the order of succession among the Old Red Sandstone strata, at least as typically developed in the British Islands:—

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| YELLOW
or
UPPER GROUP. | { 1. Yellow sandstones, generally fine-grained, but including detached pebbles, and alternating with layers of mottled shales. <i>Abundant remains of fishes, but few traces of vegetables.</i> |
| RED
or
MIDDLE GROUP. | { 2. Coarse red conglomerate of vast thickness, interrupted by occasional beds of chocolate-coloured quartzose sandstone. <i>Occasional fish-scales.</i>
{ 3. Red sandstones, generally in thick beds of a dull brick red, enclosing detached pebbles of quartz and other rocks. Conglomerate beds, layers of greenish shale, and beds of concretionary limestone, are occasionally interstratified. <i>Organic remains rare, and not very distinct.</i> |

GREY
or
LOWER GROUP.

4. Grey or reddish rusty grey sandstones with enclosed pebbles and beds of conglomerate, interstratified with greyish flagstones and sandy shales. *Remains of fishes.*
5. Dark grey micaceous flagstones and tilestones, with occasional flaggy schists of a dark bituminous aspect. *Remains of mollusca and fishes; traces of reptiles; and vegetable impressions.*

The preceding synopsis represents the usual order of the system as it occurs in Scotland and England, though few districts present an entire suite from the lowest to the highest strata.

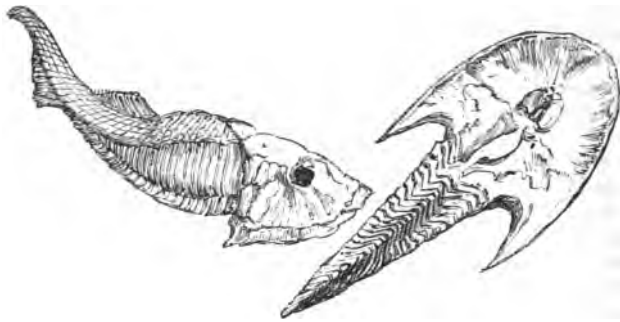
75. The organic remains of the Old Red Sandstone, though not profusely scattered through the system, are of high and increasing interest, inasmuch as they furnish distinct evidence of terrestrial vegetation, as well as the earliest traces of vertebrate life on our globe. Among the tilestones and flagstones, and also among some of the more indurated shales, we have impressions of *fuci* or seaweeds, of marsh-plants apparently allied to the equisetum, the bullrush, and sedge, and of land-plants akin to the tree-ferns and calamites. These vegetable remains generally occur in a fragmentary and carbonised state, as if they had been drifted from a distance to the sea of deposit. Among the flaggy shales of the lowest group, there occur occasional bands of a dark bituminous aspect, but it is yet a question whether this bituminous matter is the product of vegetable or animal decay. As a whole, the system is peculiarly destitute of plant remains, and it would seem that during the Old Red Sandstone period, the Flora of the world was confined to a few detached and limited areas. The Fauna of the system, on the other hand, is much more abundant and peculiar. Taking the strata as more especially investigated in Scotland, England, Ireland, and Belgium, it may be safely asserted that fishes of remarkable structure and organisation constitute the characteristic fossils. It is true that we have a few genera of shells (bivalve and univalve); of trilobite crustaceans, and recently of one or two specimens of lacertilian or lizard-like reptiles; but that profusion of corals, shells, and trilobites, which thronged the silurian seas, is here all but obliterated. The fishes of the period are peculiar, inasmuch as they are covered with bony plates, or with hard enamelled scales; are frequently furnished with bony spines or external defences; and are many of them of forms widely different from the fishes of existing seas.

76. Without entering into the anatomy of fishes, we may here explain a few terms frequently made use of by geologists in describing those remains. Fossil, like living, fishes, are either *osseous*

or *cartilaginous*; that is, have either a bony skeleton like the haddock and salmon, or one composed of mere cartilage like the shark and skate. As the scales or external coverings are the best preserved portions of fossil fishes, they have been arranged into four great orders according to the structure of these parts,—namely, the ganoid, placoid, ctenoid, and cycloid. 1. The *ganoid* (*ganos*, splendour) are so called from the shining surface of their enamelled scales. These scales are generally angular, are *regularly* arranged, entirely cover the body, are composed internally of bone, and coated with enamel. Nearly all the species referable to this division are extinct; the sturgeon and bony-pike of the North American lakes are living examples. 2. The *placoid* (*plax*, a plate) have their skins covered irregularly with plates of enamel, often of considerable dimensions, but sometimes reduced to mere points, like the shagreen on the skin of the shark, or the prickly tubercles of the ray. This order comprises all the cartilaginous fishes, with the exception of the sturgeon. 3. The *ctenoid* (*kteis*, *ktenos*, a comb) have their scales of a horny or bony substance without enamel, and jagged on the posterior edge like the teeth of a comb. The perch may be taken as a living example of this division. 4. The *cycloid* (*cyclos*, a circle) have smooth, bony or horny scales, also without enamel, but entire or rounded at their margins. The herring and salmon are living examples of this order, which embraces the majority of existing species. Besides these distinctions, it is also usual to recognise fossil fishes as heterocercal and homocercal; that is, according as their tails are unequally or equally lobed. Thus in *heterocercal* species (*heteros*, different, and *cercos*, a tail) the tail is chiefly on one side, like that of the shark and sturgeon, the back-bone being prolonged into the upper lobe; in *homocercal* species (*homos*, alike) the lobes of the tail are equal or similar, as in the salmon and herring. In palæontology this distinction, as will afterwards be seen, is an important one, all the fishes up to a certain period being heterocercs, the equally-lobed and single-rounded tails being characteristics of more recent and existing species. Such is the interpretation and importance of these palæontological terms; and the student cannot do better than again read this paragraph, and refer as he proceeds either to the woodcuts or to actual specimens.

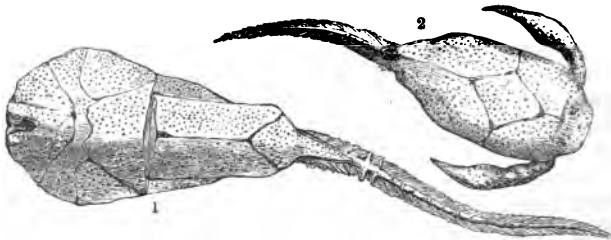
77. Of the more characteristic FISHES, we may notice the *cephalaspis*, or buckler-head (*kephalè* the head, and *aspis* a buckler), so named from the shield-like shape of its head; the *coccosteus*, or berry-bone (*kokkos* a berry, and *osteon* a bone), so called from the berry-like tubercles which stud its bony plates; the *ptericthys*, or

wing-fish (*pteron* a wing, and *ichthys* a fish), which receives its



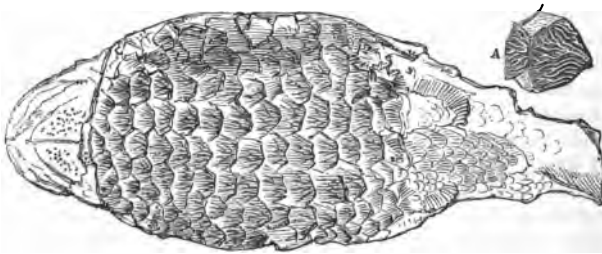
Cephalaspis—Side and under view.

name from the peculiar wing-like appendages attached to its body ; the *holoptychius*, or all-wrinkle (*holos* entire, and *ptychê* a wrinkle),



1, Coccoetetus ; 2, Pterichthys.

so termed from the wrinkled surface of its large enamelled scales ; *osteolepis*, or bone-scale (*osteon* a bone, and *lepis* a scale) ; *dipterus*,



Holoptychius. A, detached scale.

or double-fin, and so forth—all of them receiving their names from some marked and peculiar external feature. These fishes seem to have thronged the waters of the period, and their remains are often found in masses, as if they had been suddenly entombed in living shoals by the sediment which now contains them. Occasionally, only detached scales are found, as if these had been drifted about on the shores of deposit, and at other times a spine is all that bears evidence of their existence. Any fragment of a fossil fish, whether bone or scale, is termed an *ichthyolite* (*ichthys* a fish, and *lithos* a stone); and the detached spines are known by the name of *ichthyodorulites* (*ichthys* a fish, *doru* a spear, and *lithos* a stone). Of REPTILES, we have the footprints impressed on certain slabs of the lower and upper flagstones; but of the actual remains of such creatures we have only one or two small specimens, apparently allied to the Lacertilians or Lizards—one of the most perfect being the *Telerpeton Elginense*, discovered in 1852 by Mr Patrick Duff of Elgin. In this small reptile we have the first instance of a true air-breathing animal—a creature whose existence bespeaks the presence of dry lands and swampy shores; in all likelihood the same plains and river banks on which grew the equisetums, the reeds, and rush-like plants to which we have already referred.

78. The igneous rocks more intimately associated with the system are greenstone, clinkstone, felspar, claystone-porphry, amygdaloid, and other varieties of felspathic trap. Unless in the lower group, these traps are rarely interstratified with the sandstones, and in this respect present a very striking difference from the tufas and ashes which often alternate with the strata of the silurian and lower carboniferous systems. They occur chiefly as upheaving and disrupting masses, and are themselves frequently cut through by later dykes of greenstone, felspar, and porphyry—thus seemingly indicating a cessation of volcanic action during the main deposition of the old red sandstone, but a period of great activity and disturbance both at its commencement and at its close. Granitic outbursts are rare in connection with the Old Red; and it may be assumed, as a general rule, that the period of the granite had given way to that of the trap, with its multifarious compounds. The physical features of red sandstone districts in Britain are generally diversified and irregular—the hills being less bold and precipitous than those of primitive districts, and more lofty and irregular than those of the later secondaries. Where the strata are unbroken by trap eruptions, the scenery is rather flat and tame; but the soil is light and fertile, being based on sand, gravel, and friable clays, the ancient debris of the formation. On the other hand, the hills of old red districts present great

diversity of scenery ; here rising in rounded heights, there sinking in easy undulations ; now swelling in sunny slopes, and anon retiring in winding glens or rounded valley-basins of great beauty and fertility. The Ochils and Sidlaws in Scotland, with their intervening valleys, and the hills of Hereford, Brecknock, and Monmouth in England, belong exclusively to this formation, and may be taken as the type of its physical features.

79. The geographical distribution of the old red sandstone is very extensive, and there are few regions in which one or other of its groups is not clearly developed. In the eastern counties of Scotland, all the groups of the system are well exposed ; the lower portions occur largely in South Wales and Devon, in the south of Ireland, in Belgium, and in Germany ; the middle portions occupy extensive areas in Russia and the flats of Central Europe, in Siberia and Tartary, on to the flanks of the Himalaya Mountains ; and different members of the system are found in Central and Southern Africa, in the United States, and the Brazils. Wherever the system occurs, its strata give ample evidence of oceanic conditions—of deep and tranquil seas, in which were deposited the frequent alternations of the flagstones and tilestones ; of sandy shores, where the thick beds of sandstones were collected and arranged ; and of gravel beaches, which were cemented and solidified into conglomerates and puddingstones. The frequent ripple-marks speak of receding tides, the indentations left by rain-drops tell of heavy showers, the abundance of fish-remains testify to the exuberance of marine life, and the foot-tracks and skeletons of reptiles indicate in like manner the presence of terrestrial existence. And if we turn to the vegetable remains, we find in them, scanty as they may appear, sufficient evidence of marsh, and plain, and hill-side, of rains to nourish, and rivers to transport.

80. Economically, the old red system is not of prime importance. From the slaty or laminated beds we obtain such flagstones as those of Arbroath and Caithness, so extensively employed in paving. Building-stone is also obtained from the compacter sandstones, but in general the freestones of the system are neither of great beauty nor durability. The felspars, porphyries, and greenstones are exceedingly durable, but are seldom used in building, owing to the difficulty of dressing them into form. They make first-rate road materials, however, and for this purpose are largely employed in the districts where they occur. To the traps of the old red the lapidary is chiefly indebted for most of those agates, jaspers, carnelians, and calcedonies, known as "Scotch

pebbles"—these gems being usually found in rough-looking nodules among the debris of the disintegrated rocks.

RECAPITULATION.

The system which we have now reviewed under the term of the OLD RED SANDSTONE or DEVONIAN, is one of the most remarkable and clearly defined in the crust of the globe. Characterised on its lower margin by strata containing the remains of fishes, and in this respect separated from the Silurian, which is devoid of such fossils, and defined, on its upper margin, by the rarity of that vegetation which enters so profusely into the composition of the Carboniferous rocks, there can, in general, be no difficulty in determining the limits of the old red formation. On the whole, its composition is manifestly arenaceous, the great bulk of the system being made up of sandstones and conglomerates, with subordinate layers of shale and concretionary limestones. Though containing a few shells and plant-impressions, its distinctive fossils are *fishes*, often of peculiar forms, and all covered either with hard enamelled scales, or with bony plates, and frequently armed with fin-spines. Footprints and bones of small reptiles have also been recently detected, thus marking the old red epoch as that during which vertebrated air-breathing animals first made their appearance on our globe. The igneous rocks connected with the system are greenstones, clinkstones, claystones, felspars, porphyries, and other varieties of felspathic traps. These traps are rarely interstratified with the sandstones, and generally appear as disrupting and upheaving masses, either about the commencement or at the close of the period when those hills and ranges were formed, which confer on old red districts their peculiarly undulating and diversified scenery. Looking at the whole system, both in point of time and composition, we are prominently reminded of marine conditions—of sea-shores whose sands formed sandstones, and of beaches whose gravel was consolidated into conglomerates and puddingstone—of receding tides that produced ripple-marks, and of showers that left their impressions on the half-dried silt of muddy estuaries. The reddish colour which pervades the whole strata, shows that the waters of deposit must have been largely impregnated with iron—in all probability derived from the earlier granitic and metamorphic rocks, whose degradation supplied the sands and gravels of the system. If, on the other hand, we investigate the fossil remains,

we are reminded of disturbances which entombed whole shoals of fishes in marine sediment; of marshes and river-banks which gave birth to a scanty growth of ferns, reeds, and rush-like vegetables; and of sedgy margins, where frog-like reptiles enjoyed the necessary conditions of an amphibious existence.

IX.

THE CARBONIFEROUS SYSTEM, EMBRACING THE LOWER COAL-MEASURES, THE MOUNTAIN LIMESTONE, AND THE UPPER COAL-MEASURES.

81. IMMEDIATELY above the Old Red Sandstone, but clearly distinguished from it by the abundance of their vegetable remains, occur the lower members of the CARBONIFEROUS SYSTEM. It is to this profusion of vegetable matter—the main solid element of which is carbon—that the system owes its name; a profusion which has formed seams of coal (coal being but a mass of mineralised vegetation), enters into the composition of all the black bituminous or coaly shales, and which stamps many of the sandstones and limestones with a carbonaceous aspect. As above indicated, the system is generally separable into three well-marked groups—*lower coal-measures*, or *the carboniferous slates*; *the mountain limestone*; and the *upper* or *true coal-measures*. The student must not, however, suppose that these groups are everywhere present one above another in regular order. All that is affirmed by geology is, that these three groups are found in certain localities; and it is a rule of the science always to take as the type of a formation the fullest development that can be discovered. In some districts, as in the north of England, the carboniferous slates are absent, and the mountain limestone with its shales rests immediately on the old red sandstone; in other countries both the lower groups are absent, and the coal reposes on old crystalline rocks; while on the other hand, in Ireland, the carboniferous slates and mountain limestone are enormously developed, and the coal-measures very sparingly and partially so. Whatever portion of the system may be present, it is always easily recognised—the abundance and peculiarity of its fossil vegetables impressing it with features which, once seen, can never be mistaken for those

of any other formation. Derived from the waste of all the preceding rocks—the granitic, metamorphic, silurian, and old red sandstone—the strata of the system necessarily present a great variety and complexity of composition. There are sandstones of every degree of purity, from thick beds composed of white quartz grains, to flaggy strata differing little from sandy shales; shales from soft laminated clays to dark slaty schists, and from these to beds so bituminous that they are scarcely distinguishable from impure coals; and limestones, from sparkling saccharoid marbles to calcareous grits and shales. Besides these varieties of sandstones, clays, shales, and limestones, there occur, for the first time in the crust, seams of coal and bands of ironstone, and these also, appearing in every degree of admixture, add still further to the complexity of the system. On the whole, the carboniferous strata, from first to last, may be said to be composed of frequent alternations of sandstones, shales, limestones, coals, and ironstones—and these in their respective groups we shall now consider.

Lower Coal-Measures or Carboniferous Slates.

82. This group is meant to embrace all the alternations of strata which lie between the old red sandstone and the mountain or carboniferous limestone. In some districts it is very scantily developed; in others, as in Ireland and Scotland, it attains a thickness of several thousand feet. In the south of Ireland it consists chiefly of dark slaty shales, grits, flaggy limestones, and thin seams of impure coal; and has, from the general slaty aspect of its strata, been termed the *Carboniferous Slates*. In Scotland, particularly in Fife and the Lothians, it has none of this slaty character, but consists essentially of thick-bedded white sandstones, dark bituminous shales, frequently imbedding bands of ironstone, thin seams of coal, and peculiar strata, either of shell-limestone or of argillaceous limestone, thought from its fossils to be of fresh-water or estuary origin. Unless in its fine white sandstones (the ordinary building-stone of Edinburgh and St Andrews), in its fine-grained estuary and shell limestones, and in the greater profusion of its shells and fishes, the lower group, as developed in Scotland, differs little in appearance from the upper group; hence the term *Lower Coal-Measures* generally applied to it in that country.

83. Looking at the lower coal-measures in the mass, there cannot be a doubt they were deposited under very different con-

ditions from the old red sandstone beneath, and the mountain limestone above. Both these formations are eminently marine—the yellow sandstones being replete with true oceanic fishes, and the mountain limestone profusely charged with marine shells and corals. The lower coal-measures, on the other hand, have more of a fresh-water than of a salt-water aspect. Coralloid fossils are rarely or ever found in its strata; its shells are decidedly estuary; its plants seem to have grown in marshes and delta-jungles, and many of its fishes are large and of sauroid types. Under these circumstances, we are justified in regarding it as a separate group—a group which, when more minutely investigated, will throw much important light on the earlier history of the period.

84. In its mineral composition and structure, this group bears evidence of frequent alternations of sediment, as if the rivers of transport were now charged with mud and vegetable debris, now with limy silt, and anon with sand and clay. There are no conglomerates as in the old red sandstone, and from the laminated structure of most of the strata, they seem to have been deposited in tranquil waters. There are, however, more frequent interstratifications of igneous rocks, as if the seas and estuaries of deposit had also been the seats of submarine volcanoes and craters of eruption. The iron which impregnated the waters of the old red period, and tinged with rusty red the whole of that system, now appears in the segregated form of thin layers and bands of ironstone. The frequent thin seams of coal point to a new exuberance of terrestrial vegetation, and indicate the existence of a genial climate, and of dry lands—of jungles where pines like the *auracaria* reared their gigantic trunks—of river banks where tree-ferns waved their feathery fronds—and of estuary swamps where gigantic reeds, *equisetums*, and other marsh vegetation, flourished in abundance. When we turn to the shell-limestones, and find them two or three feet in thickness, and entirely composed of mussel-like bivalves, we are instantly reminded of estuaries where these shell-fish lived in beds as do the mussel and other gregarious molluscs of the present day. Or if we examine the frequent remains of the fishes which are found in the shales and limestones, we have ample evidence of their predacious habits, and are forcibly reminded of shallow seas and estuaries, where huge sauroid fishes were the tyrant-scavengers of the period. A few fragments of land-shells, and the skeletons of some minute reptiles of the frog kind, indicate the existence of a terrestrial fauna which becomes more abundant and varied in the higher groups of the system.

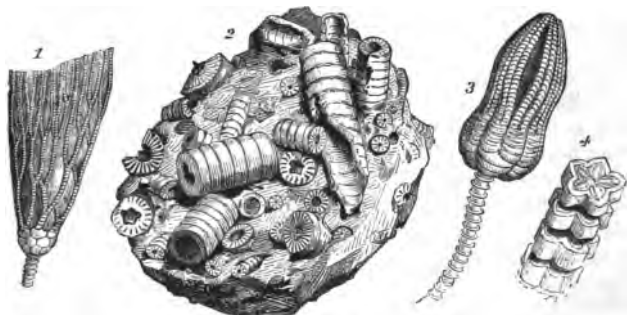
Mountain or Carboniferous Limestone.

85. This group is one of the most distinct and unmistakable in the whole crust of the earth. Whether consisting of one thick reef-like bed of limestone, or of many beds with alternating shales and gritty sandstones, its peculiar corals, encrinites, and shells distinguish it at once from all other series of strata. In fact, it forms in the rocky crust a zone, so marked and peculiar, that it becomes a guiding-post, not only to the miner in the carboniferous system, but to the geologist in his researches among other strata. It has received the name of *Mountain Limestone* because it is very generally found flanking or crowning the trap-hills that intervene between the Old Red and the Coal Measures, where, from its hard and durable texture, it forms bold escarpments, as in the hills of Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Fife, and many parts of Ireland. It is also termed the *Carboniferous Limestone*, from its occurring in that system, and constituting one of its most remarkable features.

86. As already indicated, this group in some districts consists of a few thick beds of limestone, with subordinate layers of calcareous shale. In other localities the shales predominate, and the limestones occupy a subordinate place alternating with the shales, thin seams of coal, and strata of gritty sandstones. Occasionally the limestone appears in one bold reef-like mass, of more than a hundred feet in thickness, separated by a few partings of shale, or rather layers of impure limestone. Whatever be the order of succession, it usually occurs as a dark sub-crystalline limestone, occasionally used as marble, but more frequently raised for mortar and agricultural purposes. Along with the other members of the group, it is often replete with the exuviae of corals, encrinites, and shells, these fossils forming the curious ornamental markings on its polished surface. Besides being rent and dislocated like all other stratified rocks, it is further intersected by what are called *joints* or *divisional planes* (the "backs" and "cutters" of the quarryman)—these being fissures perpendicular to the lines of bedding, and causing the rock to break up in large tabular masses. These natural rents affording free passage to water, the mountain limestone is very often grooved and channelled; these channels, where the rock is thick, becoming caverns and grottoes of great extent and magnitude. It is to this percolation of water, charged with carbonic acid, that we owe not only these caverns, and the beautiful *stalactites* and *stalagmites* which adorn their roofs and

floors, but also the numerous petrifying springs which abound in limestone districts.

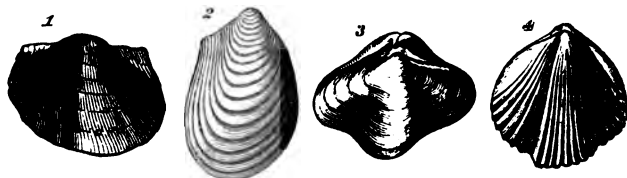
87.* The fossils of the limestone group are the usual coal-plants in the shales; and in the calcareous beds numerous varieties of corals, corallines, encrinites, shells, trilobites, and enamel-scaled fishes, some of huge size and sauroid aspect. The whole of these fossils are highly indicative of marine conditions, and in general the observer feels as little difficulty in accounting for the formation of the group, as he does in accounting for the origin of an existing coral-reef. Among the zoophytes the most characteristic are varieties of *retepora* and *flustracea*, whose net-like markings are found in almost every bed of calcareous shale; and of numerous *cup-corals*, *star-corals*, *tube-corals*, and *branching* and *lamelliferous corals*, such as constitute the growing coral-reefs of the Pacific. Of the radiata, by far the most abundant are the *crinoidea* or encrinites, whose jointed stems



1, Cyathocrinite: 2, Encrinital Limestone: 3, Encrinite: 4, Joints of Pentacrinite.

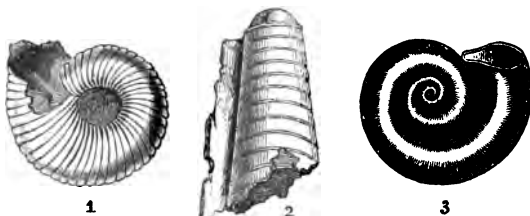
and branches often make up the entire mass of limestone. As trilobites were especially characteristic of the silurian period, and bony-plated fishes of the old red sandstone, so may encrinites be regarded as peculiarly distinctive of the mountain limestone. They occur in endless varieties, but are all constructed on the same plan—viz., that of a cup-like body, furnished with numerous arms and branches, and attached to the sea-bottom by a jointed and flexible stalk. They derive their names chiefly from the shape of their cup-like bodies, or from that of the calcareous joints which compose the stalk. Thus we have the *cyathocrinite*, so called from the cup-like shape of its body; the *apiocrinite*, or pear-shaped; the *pentacrinite*, whose stalk is five-sided instead of round; the *actinocrinite*, or spiny encrinite; the *encrinites moniliformis*, so called from the necklace aspect of its stalk; and

many others, all deriving their names from some marked external character. Besides the encrinites, or lily-shaped radiata, there are true star-fishes, like the *asterias* of our own seas, and *echinoderms*, like our sea-urchins. Of the shell-fish, the bivalves known as *productus*, *terebratula*, and *spirifer*; the univalves,



1, *Productus*; 2, *Inoceramus*; 3, *Spirifer*; 4, *Terebratula*.

turritella, *patella*, and *buccinum*; the coiled chambered-shells, *euomphalus*, *goniatites*, and *bellerophon*; and the straight chambered-shells, known as *orthoceratites*, are the most abundant and



1, *Bellerophon*; 2, *Orthoceratite*; 3, *Euomphalus*.

characteristic. Of crustaceans, *trilobites* are still found, but not in great numbers nor variety; and of true vertebrate fishes, the *holoptychius*, the *megalichthys* (large fish), and *palæoniscus*, are the most common in Britain. Another common fossil in the shales of the mountain limestone and coal-measures, as indeed in the shales of all the secondary formations, is the *coprolite* (*kopros*, dung, and *lithos*, a stone), or fossil excrement of fishes and saurians. In many instances coprolites contain scales, fragments of shells, &c., the remains of creatures on which these voracious animals preyed, and not unfrequently they exhibit the corrugations and convolutions of the intestines.

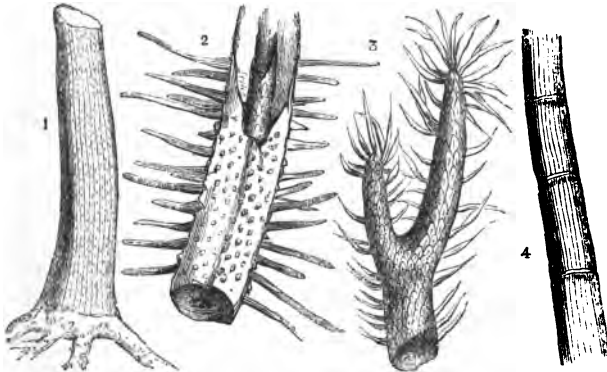
The Upper Coal-Measures.

88. This group, which completes the Carboniferous system, derives its name from the fact that it furnishes in Britain those

valuable beds of coal which contribute so materially to our country's prosperity and power. Occurring immediately above the Mountain limestone, or sometimes separated from it, as in the north of England, by thick beds of quartzose sandstone, known as the *Millstone grit*, it consists essentially of alternations of sandstones, grits, fire-clays, black bituminous shales, bands of ironstone, seams of coal, and occasional beds of impure limestone. One of the most notable features in its composition is the frequent recurrence of seams of coal and beds of bituminous shale—all bespeaking an enormous profusion of vegetable growth, and a long-continued epoch in the world's history, when conditions of soil, moisture, and climate conjoined to produce a flora since then unparalleled either in tropical forms or in abundance. It is this profusion of vegetable growth, now converted or mineralised into *coal*, which distinguishes the carboniferous from all other systems—the lakes and estuaries of the period being repeatedly choked with vegetable matter, partly drifted from a distance by river inundations, and partly accumulated on the bed of its growth after the manner of peat-mosses, jungles, and submerged forests.

89. The coal-measures, as already stated, consist of alternations of sandstones, coals, shales, ironstones, clays, and impure limestones. Among these multifarious beds there is no apparent order of succession, though gritty sandstones may be said to prevail at the base of the group, shales and coals in the middle, and sandstones and marly-shale in the upper portion—these gradually passing into the superior system of the new red sandstone. The sandstones occur in great variety, but are in general of a dull-white or brown colour, and thick-bedded. Occasionally they are thin-bedded or flaggy, but in this case they are more or less mingled with carbonaceous, argillaceous, or calcareous matter. The coals also present numerous differences, and are known to mineralogists as *anthracite*, a non-bituminous and semi-lustrous variety; *caking-coal*, a highly bituminiferous sort, like that of Newcastle, which cakes or undergoes a kind of fusion during combustion; *splint*, a less bituminous and slaty variety, which burns free and open, without caking; and *cannel*, a compact lustrous variety, which breaks with a conchoidal or shell-like fracture, and is extensively used in the manufacture of gas. The shales are all dark-coloured, and more or less bituminous; the limestones impure and earthy; and the ironstones occur in bands or in nodules—either as a clay-carbonate of iron, or in combination with bituminous or coaly matter, as the “black-band” of Scotland.

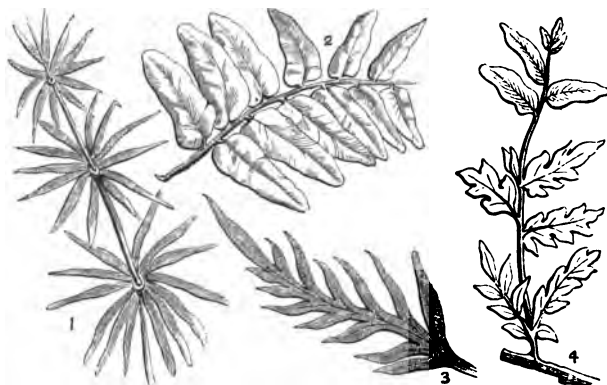
90. The organic remains of the coal-measures, though exhibiting many features in common with the groups already described, are still, as a whole, peculiarly well defined. As an estuary deposit, many of the beds contain shells (the "mussel-bands" or "mussel-binds" of the miner), fishes, and other aquatic exuviae. A few encrinurites appear in certain exceptional beds of limestone, but otherwise marine types are subordinated, and estuary ones prevail. The fishes are chiefly of large size, and of a sauroid character; and in several fields—as those of Germany, Belgium, Nova Scotia, and Britain—we have evidences of terrestrial life in the skeletons of certain lizard and frog-like reptiles, and in fragments of land-shells and remains of insects. The grand feature of the period, however, is the abundant and gigantic flora, comprising hundreds of forms which have now only distant representatives in tropical swamps and jungles. Auracarian-like pines, palms, tree-ferns, gigantic reeds, equisetums, clubmosses, and other kindred forms, crowd every bed of shale, enter into many of the sandstones, and constitute solid seams of coal. Of the more characteristic of these forms we may notice the *sigillaria*



1, *Sigillaria*; 2, *Stigmaria*; 3, *Lepidodendron*; 4, *Calamites*

(*sigillum*, a seal), so called from the seal-like impressions on its trunk; the *stigmaria* (*stigma*, a puncture), from the dotted or punctured appearance of its back, supposed to be the roots of *sigillaria*; the *lepidodendron* (*lepis*, a scale; and *dendron*, a tree), from the scaly exterior of its bark; *calamites* (*calamus*, a reed), from the reed-like jointings of its stalk; and *asterophyllites* (*astron*, a star, and *phyllon*, a leaf), from the star-like whorls of its leaves. In fact, these and all the other vegetable remains

are named from some peculiarity of form, the ablest botanists being yet unable to assign them a place among existing genera. Of the fern-like impressions—so abundant in the shales, and which must meet the eye of the student in almost every fragment he splits—the following may be taken as typical forms: *sphenopteris*, or wedge-leaf (*sphen*, a wedge; and *pteron*, a wing), from the wedge



1. Asterophyllites; 2. Glossopteris; 3. Pecopteris; 4. Neuropteris

shape of its leaves; *glossopteris*, or tongue-leaf (*glossè*, a tongue); *pecopteris*, or comb-leaf (*pekos*, a comb); *neuropteris*, or nerve-leaf, and so on with many similar forms.

91. Whatever the botanical families to which these extinct vegetables belong, they now for the most part constitute solid seams of coal—coal being a mass of compressed, altered, and mineralised vegetation, just as sandstone is consolidated sand, or shale consolidated mud. By what chemical processes this change has been brought about, we need not minutely inquire; but we see in peat and in lignite the progressive steps to such a mineralisation; and when thin slices of coal are subjected to the microscope, its organic structure is often as distinctly displayed as the cells and fibres in a piece of timber. Of the amount of vegetation required to form not only one seam, but forty or fifty seams, which often succeed each other in coal-fields, we can form no adequate conception, any more than we can calculate the time required for their growth and consolidation. This only we know, that conditions of soil and moisture and climate must have been exceedingly favourable; that over a large portion of the globe such conditions then prevailed; and that partly by the drift of gigantic

rivers, and partly by the successive submergences of forests, jungles, and peat-swamps, the vegetable matter was accumulated which now constitutes our valuable seams of coal.

92. During the whole of the carboniferous epoch we have ample evidence of igneous activity. In the lower coal-measures we have frequent interstratifications of trap-tuff and ash, and these become more abundant in connection with the mountain limestone. Subsequent to the deposition of the system, it seems to have been shattered and broken up by those forces which elevated the trap-hills of the mountain limestone, and gave birth to the numerous basaltic crags and conical heights of our coal-fields. The traps are chiefly aegitic, and consist of basalts, greenstones, clinkstones, trap-breccias, trap-tuffs, and earthy amygdaloids. The upheavals and convulsions of the period have greatly dislocated the strata, and most of our coal-fields exhibit trap-dykes, faults, and fissures, in great complexity and abundance. If we except the hills of the mountain limestone, some of the basaltic crags and cones, and now and then a glen valley of erosion cut through the soft strata of the system, the scenery of coal districts is on the whole rather tame and unpicturesque. The soil, too, in general derived from the shales and clays beneath, is often cold and retentive, and requires all the skill and appliances of modern agriculture to render it moderately fertile. These drawbacks, however, are more than compensated for by the value of the mineral treasures beneath.

93. The industrial importance of the carboniferous system can only be adequately appreciated in a country like Britain, which owes to it the proud mechanical and manufacturing position which she now enjoys. *Building-stone* of the finest quality is obtained from the white sandstones of the lower groups; *limestones* for mortar, hydraulic-cement, and agricultural purposes, are largely quarried from the middle group, which also yields *marbles* of no mean quality; *fire-clay* for bricks and tiles and pipes is extensively raised from the coal-measures; *ironstone*, both black-band and clay-carbonate, is mined in almost every coal-field, and constitutes almost the sole supply of this metal in Britain; *ochre* (hydrated oxide of iron) is obtained in several localities; *alum* is largely prepared from some of the shales; *copperas*, or sulphate of iron, is manufactured from the pyritous shales of the coal-measures; and our sole supply of *coal*, in all its varieties, is procured from this system. The mountain limestone is also in this country the main repository of the ores of *lead*, *zinc*, and *antimony*, and in the same veinstones are associated ores of *silver*, and

not unfrequently of *gold*. On the whole, the carboniferous system is decidedly the most valuable and most important to man ; and when we name the principal coal-fields of Britain, we point at the same instant to the busiest centres of our manufacturing and mechanical industry.

RECAPITULATION.

The strata we have now described constitute a well-marked and peculiar system, lying between the old red sandstone beneath, and the new red sandstone above. Their most striking peculiarity is the profusion of fossil vegetation, which marks less or more almost every stratum, and which in numerous instances forms thick seams of solid coal. It is to this exuberance of vegetation that the system owes its name—*carbon* being the main solid element of plants and coal. Although this coaly or carbonaceous aspect prevails throughout the whole system, it has been found convenient to arrange it into three groups—the Lower Coal Measures or Carboniferous Slates, the Mountain or Carboniferous Limestone, and the Upper or True Coal Measures ; or more minutely, as is generally done by English geologists, into—

1. Upper coal-measures.
2. Millstone grit.
3. Mountain limestone, and
4. Lower coal-measures.

Taking the whole succession and alternations of the strata—the sandstones, clays, shales, limestones, ironstones, and coal—and noting their peculiar fossils, the estuary character of the shells and fishes of the lower and upper groups, and the marine character of the corals, encrinites, shells, and fishes of the middle group, with an excess of terrestrial vegetation throughout, we are reminded of conditions never before or since exhibited on our globe. The frequent alternations of strata, and the great extent of our coal-fields, indicate the existence of vast estuaries and inland seas, of gigantic rivers and periodical inundations ; the numerous coal-seams and bituminous shales clearly bespeak conditions of soil, moisture, and warmth favourable to an exuberant vegetation, and point partly to vegetable drift, and partly to submerged forests, to peat-swamps and jungle growth ; the mountain limestone, with its marine remains, reminds us of low tropical islands fringed with coral reefs, and to lagoons thronged with shell-fish and fishes ; the existence of reptiles and

insects tells us of air, and sunlight, and river-banks ; the vast geographical extent of the system bears evidence of a more equable climate over a large portion of the earth's surface ; while the interstratified trap-tuffs, the basaltic outbursts, and the numerous faults and fissures, testify to a period of intense igneous activity—to repeated upheavals of sea-bottom and submergences of dry land. All this is so clearly indicated to the investigator of the carboniferous system, that he feels as convinced of their occurrence as if he had stood on the river-bank of the period, and seen the muddy current roll down its burden of vegetable drift ; threaded the channels of the estuary, gloomy with the gigantic growth of swamp and jungle ; or sailed over the shallow waters of its archipelago, studded with reef-fringed volcanic islands, and dipped his oar into the forests of encrinites that waved below. The natural conditions under which the system was formed are not more wonderful, however, than the economical importance of its products. Building-stone, limestone, marble, fire-clay, alum, copperas, lead, zinc, silver, and, above all, iron and coal, are its principal treasures—conferring new wealth and comfort on the country that possesses them, and giving a fresh and permanent impetus to its industry and civilisation.

X.

THE NEW RED SANDSTONE SYSTEM, COMPRISING THE PERMIAN AND TRIASSIC GROUPS, OR THE NEW RED SANDSTONE, MAGNESIAN LIMESTONE, AND SALIFEROUS MARL SERIES.

94. IMMEDIATELY above the coal-measures—in some instances lying unconformably, and in others insensibly graduating from them—occurs a set of red sandstones, yellowish magnesian limestones, and variegated shales and marls, enclosing irregular masses of rock-salt and gypsum. To this series of strata, as more especially developed in England, the earlier geologists applied the term *New Red Sandstone*, in contradistinction to the old red sandstone system, which we have already described as lying beneath the carboniferous formation. Though the sandstones are not all red, nor the limestones the only magnesian limestones in the crust

of the earth, still reddish hues prevail throughout the sandstones and shales, and the calcareous beds are certainly more eminently magnesian than any others with which we are acquainted. Under these circumstances, the term "New Red Sandstone" is sufficiently distinctive, and may be retained with advantage till newer subdivisions are better established. At one time the terms *Poikilitic* (*poikilos*, variegated) and *Saliferous* (salt-yielding) were applied to the system; but the fact that variegated marls abound in the old red, and that salt is found in several other systems, has rendered these designations all but obsolete. At present, it is proposed to divide the new red sandstone into two distinct systems, the *Permian* and the *Triassic*—the former embracing the lower members, which are largely and typically developed in the government of Perm, in Russia, and the latter comprising the upper members, known as the "Trias," or triple group, in Germany. The reasons for this new arrangement will become more apparent as we consider the composition and succession of the strata.

95. The new red sandstone, as developed in England, Germany, and Russia, consists essentially of reddish and occasionally whitish quartzose sandstones; of reddish and variegated shales (mottled purple, yellow, and green); of yellowish limestones, containing a notable per-centage of magnesia; and of calcareous or marly flagstones, often largely impregnated with copper-pyrites. The sandstones are generally thick-bedded, sometimes gritty, but rarely or never conglomerate. The shales are usually called "marls," but this less from their containing any notable quantity of lime, than from their occurring in a mottled, friable, and non-laminated state. These shales frequently imbed crystals, plates, and masses of gypsum, and alternate, as in Cheshire, with beds and layers of rock-salt; hence the term "saliferous marls." The limestones vary from an almost pure carbonate of lime to an admixture, containing upwards of forty per cent of carbonate of magnesia—hence called "magnesian limestones." Their structure is often peculiar, occurring in thick beds, with subordinate concretionary masses, and layers of a powdery consistence. The concretions are often of curious shapes, *honey-combed*, *mammillary*, or pap-like, and *botryoidal*, or in clusters like a bunch of grapes. When the magnesian limestone assumes a granular and crystalline texture, it is known by the mineralogical name of *dolomite*, after the French geologist, M. Dolomieu. The slaty or flaggy beds are known in England as "marl-slates," and in Germany, where they are largely impregnated with copper-pyrites, as

"keuper-marls," and "kupfer-schiefer" (copper-slate), names now quite familiar to British geologists.

96. With respect to the order of succession among the strata, the new red sandstone, like every other system, presents local differences and irregularities. In England the lower portion consists chiefly of red sandstone and grits, the middle of magnesian limestones and gypseous marls, and the upper portion of variegated sandstones and shales, enclosing local deposits of rock-salt and gypsum. This succession is usually tabulated as follows :—

UPPER.	{	VARIEGATED MARLS—Red, with bluish, greenish, and whitish laminated clays or marls, holding <i>gypsum</i> generally, and <i>rock-salt</i> partially (as in Cheshire). Interstratified with these marls are certain grey and whitish sandstones.
		VARIEGATED SANDSTONES—Red sandstones with white and mottled portions, the lower parts in some districts pebbly.
MIDDLE.	{	LAMINATED LIMESTONES, with layers of coloured marls, as at Knottingley, Doncaster, &c.
		GYPSEOUS MARLS—Red, bluish, and mottled.
		MAGNESIAN LIMESTONE—Yellow and white; of various texture and structure; some parts, as at Tynemouth, brecciated, or made up of fragmentary masses.
		MARL SLATES—Laminated, impure calcareous flagstones of a soft argillaceous or sandy nature.
LOWER.	{	RED SANDSTONES, with red and purple marls, and a few micaceous beds. The grits are sometimes white or yellow, and pebbly. When conformable, this sandstone occasionally passes into the coal-measures on which it rests.

In France, Germany, Russia, and North America, where the system has been well investigated, some of these members are wanting, while others are more fully and typically developed. Thus, placing side by side the English and German representatives, we obtain a very complete view of the system, and learn the important fact that it is by general types, and not by any conventional arrangement of strata, that the geologist must be guided in his deductions :—

In England.
 Variegated marls and grits.
 (*Wanting.*)
 Variegated sandstones.
 Laminated limestones.
 Brecciated limestone.
 Fossiliferous limestone.
 Compact limestone.
 Marl slate.
 Red sandstones and grits.

In Germany.
 Keuper marls and grits.
 Muschelkalk (shelly limestone.)
 Bunter sandstein.
 Stinkstein.
 Rauchwackè.
 Dolomit; upper zechstein.
 Zechstein (mine-stone).
 Mergel-schiefer and kupfer-schiefer.
 Rothe-tode-liegende.

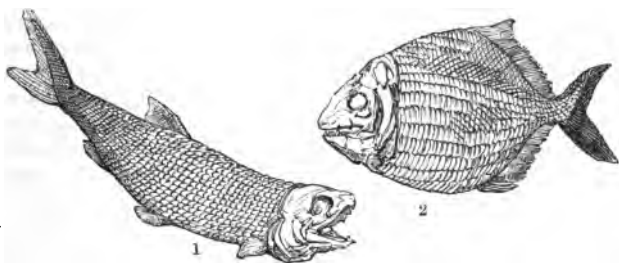
97. Taken as a whole, the student must perceive that a great difference exists between the red sandstones, magnesian limestones, and mottled marls of the new red sandstone, and the gritty sandstones, bituminous shales, and coal seams of the carboniferous system. As he ascends he will also discover as marked a mineral distinction between its strata and those of the lias and oolite above. On the other hand, when he comes to investigate its fossils, he will find that many forms are common both to its lower members and the coal-measures, and that other forms are common to its upper strata and the oolite beds above. It was this passage or transition from one system of life to another that induced the earlier geologists to classify the new red sandstone, the carboniferous formation, and the old red sandstone as LOWER or OLDER SECONDARIES, and the lias, oolite, and chalk as the UPPER or YOUNGER SECONDARIES. More recently, however, it has been proposed to arrange the new red into two distinct systems—the *Permian* and *Triassic*—the former comprising those strata which contain fossils more or less allied to carboniferous types, and the latter those which contain fossils less or more allied to oolite types. Adopting this view, we have the following arrangement :—

TRIAS.	{ Keuper.	{ Saliferous marls and grits.
	{ Muschelkalk.	
	{ Bunter sandstein.	{ (Wanting.)
		{ Variegated sandstones.
PERMIAN.	{ Lower bunter.	{ Grits and gypseous marls.
	{ Zechstein.	
	{ Kupfer-schiefer.	{ Magnesian limestones.
	{ Roth-liegende.	{ Marl slates.
		{ Red sandstones and grits.

According to this arrangement the Permian or lower new red take their place among the *palæozoic* strata, and the Triassic among the *mesozoic*, as indicated in paragraph 42, to which the student is here requested to refer.

98. The organic remains, as far as discovered, do not appear to be very abundant, and with this paucity of fossils it would be unsafe to dogmatise too confidently as to the ultimate grouping of the system. In the permian group the characteristic PLANTS are *sphenopteris*, *neuropteris*, and other ferns closely allied to those of the coal-measures; *calamites*, *asterophyllites*, *lepidodendron*, *lycopodites* (club mosses), *equisetums*, and *conifere* or pines of the araucarian family. Leaves like those of the *Cycas revoluta*, known by the name of *noeggerathia*, with silicified trunks of tree-ferns, termed *psaronites*, are common features of the permian flora. *Sigillaria* and *stigmaria*, so eminently character-

istic of the carboniferous era, have not yet been detected, and indeed the whole flora seems to be limited and scanty. Of ANIMALS a few corals and corallines have been found, and shells like the *productus*, *spirifer*, and *mytilus* are not uncommon in the magnesian limestone; but we altogether want that profusion of corals, encrinites, and molluscs which thronged the waters of the mountain limestone epoch. The trilobites have also vanished, and we have no certain instance of any crustacean. Of fishes we have several of the smaller ganoid forms, as *palæoniscus*, *pygop-*



1, *Palæoniscus*: 2, *Platysomus*.

terus, and *platysomus*; but with this group most of these forms disappear, and are never found in any subsequent formation. Reptile life seems to have been on the increase, and the dubious forms of the old red and coal-measures are succeeded by true air-breathing, land-inhabiting creatures of the frog and lizard families. Of these the *palæosaurus* (ancient saurian), *protosaurus* (first saurian), and *thecodontosaurus* (sheath-tooth saurian), are the most characteristic.

99. When we turn to the triassic group we find the coal plants represented only by a few *calamites*, and their place taken by plants apparently allied to the *palms*, *cycas*, *zamia*, and true *pinces*. We have now few corals, and the *productus*, *spirifer*, and other shells so abundant in the lower system, have disappeared. Of triassic bivalves the *posidonia* and *avicula* are perhaps the most abundant; and of chambered shells the *ceratites*, allied to the ammonite, is the most common genus. Of sauroid fishes numerous species have been discovered, as the *saurichthys* (sauroid-fish), *gyrolepis* (twisted-scale), *acrodus* (pointed-tooth), and others, all deriving their names from some marked peculiarity in appearance. Of reptiles several curious genera have been found allied to the lizards and monitors of our own time, the most cha-

racteristic being the *labyrinthodon* (so named from the structure of its teeth), the *phytosaurus* (plant-saurian), and the *nothosaurus* or doubtful saurian. Besides the teeth and bones of these early reptiles, we have also their footprints impressed and preserved on the slabs of sandstone, almost as clearly as if they had traversed the muddy beach of yesterday. These footprints speak a language similar to that of the ripple-mark and the rain-drop formerly alluded to—the foot leaving its impress on the yielding and half-dried mud, and the next deposit of sediment filling up the mould. On splitting up many of these slabs of sandstone the mould and its cast are found in great perfection—so much so, that not only the joints of the toes but the very texture of the skin is apparent. These fossil footprints, termed *ichnites* (from *ichnon*, a footprint), have been found at Cocklemuir in Dumfriesshire, at Storeton in Cheshire, at Hildburghausen in Germany, on the Connecticut in America, and many other places. Some of them are evidently reptilian, and hence termed *sauroidichnites*; others, again, appear to be those of gigantic birds allied to the ostrich, and thence termed *ornithichnites* (*ornis*, a bird), while others appear to be those of unknown quadrupeds (in all likelihood of some huge batrachian or frog-like reptile), and have received the provisional designation of *tetrapodichnites*, or four-footed imprints. The annexed engraving represents the footsteps of the *cheirotherium*



Footprints of *Cheirotherium*.

(*cheir*, the hand), so called from the hand-like impressions of its feet.

100. The igneous rocks associated with the system are chiefly dykes and outbursts of basalt, greenstone, pitchstone, and clay-stone porphyry. These outbursts seem to be connected with igneous centres situated in the older systems, and pass alike through the old red, carboniferous, and new red systems. With the exception of some tufaceous and brecciated beds at the base of the system, there appear to be no interstratifications of igneous matter; and, on the whole, the New Red era seems to have been one of comparative tranquillity. The consequence is, that districts in which it is the prevailing surface formation are in general flat and tame, being devoid of those eruptive undulations and eminences

which give character to the scenery of the mountain limestone and old red sandstone.

101. Reviewing the whole new red system—its sandstones, shales, magnesian limestones, gypseous, saliferous, and cupriferous marls, its comparatively few plants, its marine shells and fishes, its reptiles and fossil footprints, and its generally flat and undisturbed position—we are reminded of quiet shallow seas, of iron-tinged rivers, and of estuaries studded with lagoons and mud-banks. The marl and copper slates give evidence of tranquil deposit; the footprints, of mud-banks baked and dried in the sun, over which birds and reptiles traversed till the next return of the waters; the gypsum, rock-salt, and magnesia, of highly saline waters, subjected to long-continued evaporations, or at least to some chemical conditions favourable to the precipitation of these abundant salts; and the presence of iron, colouring less or more the whole strata, together with copper in many of the slates, point to impregnations by no means favourable to the exuberance of marine life. The remains of arborescent ferns and palm-like stems, together with the skeletons and tracks of huge lizard-like reptiles, bespeak an arid rather than a genial climate, and a want of those conditions which give birth to the exuberant vegetation of the coal era.

102. The industrial products of the system, though not to be compared with those of the coal-measures, are still of considerable importance. The sandstones are quarried in many districts for building purposes, as are also some of the magnesian limestones, which dress well, and are exceedingly durable. The limestones are likewise used in agriculture, and as mortar for the builder, while certain of the compact varieties found in Germany furnish the finest blocks for lithographic printing. Gypsum is an abundant product of some of the marls, which also yield the principal supply of rock-salt in various parts of the world, as in Cheshire and Worcester in England. This salt occurs in beds or in irregular masses of variable extent, and from 10, 20, or 30 feet up to 100 in thickness, is sometimes almost transparent, and containing only a small per-centage of impurity, and at other times is of a reddish hue, and mixed to the amount of half its bulk with earthy impurities. Salt or brine springs are of frequent occurrence in red sandstone districts, and yield on evaporation a considerable amount of the finest salt. In Germany the *kupferschiefer* has been long mined as an ore of copper, and furnishes a large proportion of that valuable metal.

RECAPITULATION.

The system above described consists essentially of reddish sandstones, yellowish magnesian limestones, slaty calcareous beds, and shales and marls enclosing beds of rock-salt and gypsum. From the prevailing hues of its strata, and from the fact of its lying immediately above the coal-measures, it has been termed the *new red sandstone*, in contradistinction to the old red, which lies beneath. The terms *poikilitic* (variegated), and *saliferous* (salt-yielding), are now seldom applied to it, these being distinctions applicable rather to particular beds than to the entire system. It was early observed to hold a sort of middle place among the secondary formations; hence the *lias*, *oolite*, and *chalk* above were considered as *younger* or *upper secondaries*, while the *new red*, the *carboniferous strata*, and the *old red*, were termed the *older* or *lower secondaries*. From the fact of its lower members containing fossils more or less allied to carboniferous types, and its upper members imbedding those less or more allied to oolitic forms, it has been recently proposed to separate these into two distinct systems—the *permian* (from Perm in Russia, where it is extensively developed), and the *triassic*, regarding the triple group of Germany as typical of its upper strata. Adopting this view, we have the following synopsis:—

TRIAS.	{	Keuper.	}	Saliferous marls and grits.
		Muschelkalk.		(Wanting.)
		Bunter sandstein.		Variegated sandstones.
PERMIAN.	{	Lower bunter.	}	Gypseous marls and grits.
		Zechstein.		Magnesian limestone.
		Kupfer-schiefer.		Marl slate.
		Roth-liegende.		Red sandstones.

In the lower group the fossils are plants akin to those of the coal-measures, with crinoids, shell-fish, fishes with heterocercal tails, and frog-like reptiles. In the upper group the plants resemble oolitic types, and the animal remains are corals, encrinites, shell-fish, fishes with homocercal tails, amphibious reptiles, and traces of birds. Taking the whole composition, succession, and remains of the system, it indicates a period of shallow seas supercharged with saline matter, of muddy estuaries and lagoons, of an arid and warm climate, and of frequent submergences and upheavals. During the period many forms of life disappeared, and were succeeded by others of a different type and order; hence the permian

group is regarded as *palæozoic*, and the triassic as *mesozoic*. On the whole, the system is little disturbed by igneous rocks, and new red sandstone districts are in consequence rather flat and monotonous. The soil is of medium quality, and affords rich verdant pastures rather than arable land for mixed husbandry. Industrially, the system yields building-stone, limestone, lithographic blocks, gypsum, rock-salt, and copper.

XI.

THE OOLITIC SYSTEM, COMPRISING THE LIAS, THE OOLITE, AND WEALDEN GROUPS.

103. We have now passed the boundary of the older rocks, and entered upon the upper or younger secondary formations. Or, speaking palæontologically, we have traced the history of systems whose fossils were all of Palæozoic types, and now proceed to interpret the records of those that are unmistakably Mesozoic. The curious graptolites and trilobites that crowded the silurian seas have vanished, the bone-cased pterichthys and coccosteus of the old red sandstone have died away, and the sigillaria and stigmara that thronged the jungles of the coal period are now no more repeated. Their places are taken by other forms of plants and animals—forms still widely different from existing races, yet more akin to them than were those of the palæozoic epochs. The triassic group, as already stated, is considered as marking the dawn of this new cycle of being, which we shall afterwards find closes with the cretaceous or chalk system. In thus attaching high importance to fossils as exponents of the past conditions of the world, lithological and physical distinctions must not be disregarded. There are facts frequently brought to light, and truths explained, by the composition, structure, and relation of rocks, which no profusion of fossils could ever interpret; and here the student is reminded that however attractive palæontological discoveries may be, they are only of true geological value when taken in connection with chemical, mineral, and mechanical characteristics.

104. The system which we are about to describe consists, as

developed in England, of three well-marked groups—the Lias, the Oolite, and the Wealden. Indeed, so clearly defined are these groups that they are sometimes regarded as independent systems; and were it not for certain fossil as well as lithological resemblances that pervade them, this course would in many respects be preferable. As it is, the *Oolitic system* comprehends the whole of those peculiar limestones, calcareous sandstones, marls, shales, and clays which lie between the new red sandstone beneath and the chalk formation above. And however similar these strata may be in some features, there is no truth in geology more fully established than this, that where the system is complete, the argillaceous laminated limestones and shales termed the *lias* constitute the lowest group; the yellowish granular limestone, calcareous sandstones, sands and clays called *oolite* the middle group; and the greyish laminated clays, with subordinate layers of limestone and flaggy sandstones, the *wealden* or upper group. Taking these groups in order, the following synopsis exhibits their character as typically developed in England:—

WEALDEN.	WEALD CLAY.—Greyish laminated clays imbedding concretions of ironstone, thin layers of argillaceous limestone, and sandy flags.
	HASTINGS SANDS.—Sands and sandstones frequently ferruginous; beds of clay and sandy shale more or less calcareous.
	PURBECK BEDS.—Estuary limestones alternating with sands and clays (classed by some with the upper oolite).
OOLITE.	UPPER OOLITE.—Coarse and fine grained oolitic limestones, with layers of calcareous sand (<i>Portland stone and sand</i>); dark laminated clays, with gypsum and bituminous shale (<i>Kimmeridge clay</i>).
	MIDDLE OOLITE.—Coarse-grained, shelly, and coralline oolite, with calcareous sands and grits (<i>coral rag</i>); dark-blue clays, with subordinate clayey limestones and bituminous shale (<i>Oxford clay</i>).
	LOWER OOLITE.—Coarse, rubbly, and shelly limestones (<i>cornbrash</i>); laminated shelly limestones and grits (<i>forest marble</i>); thick-bedded oolite, more or less compact and sandy (<i>Bath or great oolite</i>); flaggy grits and oolites (<i>Stonefield slate</i>); fuller's earth and clay, calcareous freestone and yellow sand (<i>inferior oolite</i>).
LIAS.	UPPER LIAS.—Thick beds of dark bituminous shale; beds of pyritous clay and alum shale; indurated marl, or marlstone.
	LOWER LIAS.—Dark laminated limestones and clays; bands of ironstone; layers of jet and lignite; beds of calcareous sandstone.

105. It will be perceived from the preceding synopsis that the

Lias or *liassic* group occupies the lowest portion of the system, and that it is essentially composed of dark argillaceous limestones, bluish clays, and bituminous and pyritous shales. The name *lias*, which is said to be a provincial corruption of the word *layers*, refers to the thin beds in which its limestones usually occur. "The peculiar aspect," says Sir Charles Lyell, "which is most characteristic of the lias in England, France, and Germany, is an alternation of thin beds of blue or grey limestone, with a light-brown weathered surface, separated by dark-coloured argillaceous partings; so that the quarries of this rock, at a distance, assume a striped and ribbon-like appearance." Once seen, this banded appearance of a lias cliff is not easily forgotten; but it must be remembered that the clays generally predominate, and that they contain occasional layers of jet or other coal (*jet* being but a lustrous variety of coal), and bands of ironstone nodules or *septaria*. Most of the shales are bituminous and pyritous, and it is not uncommon, after wet weather, for the Yorkshire cliffs, which are composed of these beds, to ignite spontaneously, and burn for several months. Besides *pyrites* (sulphuret of iron), these shales are impregnated with sulphates of magnesia and soda, with salt (muriate of soda), and other saline compounds which indicate a marine origin. Indeed, the whole aspects of the lias—its fossils, composition, and lamination—are those of a tranquil deep-sea deposit.

106. The Oolite, as a group, consists of more frequent alternations, and is more varied in its composition than the lias. It derives its name from the rounded grains which compose many of its limestones—these grains resembling the roe or egg of a fish (*oon*, an egg; and *lithos*, a stone). Oolite is the general term, though many of its limestones are not oolitic; *roestone* is sometimes employed when the grains are very distinct; and *pisolite*, or *peastone* (*pisum*, a pea), when the grains are large and pea-like. As a series, the oolite consists of alternations of oolitic limestones, calcareous grits, shelly conglomerates, yellowish sands, and clays less or more calcareous. The peculiar roe-like grains which constitute the oolitic texture, consist either entirely of lime, or of an external coating of lime collected round minute particles of sand, shells, coral, &c.; the grits are composed of fragments of shells, coral, and sand; and many of the strata have a brecciated aspect, hence known as *ragstones*. Like the lias, the oolite is strictly a marine deposit, but its corals, broken shells, and grits, point to shallower waters, to tidal beaches, and sandbanks.

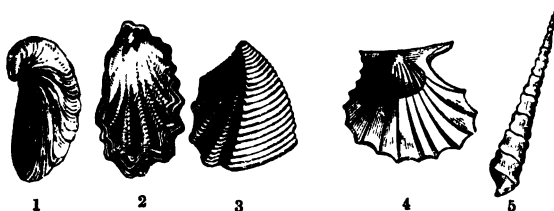
107. The *Wealden group*—so termed from the "Wolds" or

"Wealds" of Kent and Sussex, where the deposit prevails—consists chiefly of clays and shales, with subordinate beds of indurated sands, sandstones, and shelly limestones, that indicate an estuary or brackish-water origin. Thin partings of lignite and bituminous shale are not unfrequent among the clayey strata. The group is of limited extent in England, and in many countries is altogether wanting; the chalk in such cases resting immediately on the oolite. As typically developed in Kent and Sussex, the wealden seems to occupy the site of an ancient estuary, which received the clay and mud of some gigantic river, whose waters occasionally bore down the spoils of land plants and land animals, to be entombed along with those of aquatic origin.

108. The organic remains of the system, as already stated, are all *Mesozoic*—that is, belong to genera and species differing from those found in the older rocks, and differing also, though less in general aspect, from those of the tertiary and present epochs. They are exceedingly numerous and well-preserved, and have long and intimately engaged the attention of palæontologists. **VEGETABLE REMAINS** are frequent in all the groups, and sometimes in such profusion as to form seams of lignite, jet, and coal. The Kimmeridge bituminous shale known as "Kim coal," the carbonaceous shales, lignites, and coals of eastern Yorkshire, and the coal of Brora in Sutherlandshire, belong to the oolitic members of the system. Some of the marine deposits contain impressions of *fuci* or seaweeds; and in those of estuary origin, *equisetums*, *calamites*, and other aquatic plants, are not uncommon. The terrestrial or marsh orders seem to indicate a genial, if not a tropical, climate—the more characteristic forms being arborescent ferns (*pecopteris*, *cyclopteris*, *pterophyllum*, &c.); palms (*palmacites*) like the pandanus, or screw-pine; cycadææ approaching very nearly the existing cycas and zamia, termed *cycadites* and *zamites*; coniferæ apparently allied to the araucaria, yew, and cypress, and known as *thuytes*, *strobulites*, *peucites*, &c.; and abundance of monocotyledonous leaves resembling those of the lily, pine-apple, agavè, aloe, and allied genera. One of the most remarkable facts connected with the vegetation of the period, is the occurrence of dark loam-like strata, locally known as the "dirt-beds" of Portland, and which must have formed the soils on which grew the cycas and other oolitic plants, though now interstratified with limestones, sandstones, and shales. "At the distance of two feet," says Mr Bakewell, "we find an entire change from marine strata to strata once supporting terrestrial plants; and should any doubt arise respecting the original place and position of these plants, there is

over the lower dirt-bed a stratum of fresh-water limestone, and upon this a thick dirt-bed, containing not only cycadeæ, but stumps of trees from three to seven feet in height, in an erect position, with their roots extending beneath them. Stems of trees are found prostrate upon the same stratum, some of them from twenty to twenty-five feet in length, and from one to two feet in diameter."

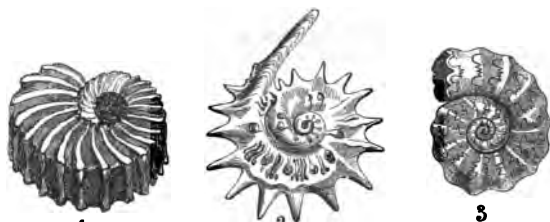
109. With respect to the **ANIMAL REMAINS**, we have representatives of almost every existing order, with the exception of the higher mammalia. Beginning with the lowest forms, we have *spongia*, or sponges; numerous zoophytes, more like the corals of existing seas than those of the mountain and silurian limestones, and among which the more common forms are *astræa* (star-corals), *madrepores*, *millepores*, *meandrina* (brain-corals), and *turbinolia*, a variety of cup-in-cup coral; crinoids, of which the *apiocrinite* and *pentacrinite* are the most frequent; star-fishes like the *asterias* and *ophiura*; sea-urchins like the *echinus*, *clypeus*, and beautiful *cidaris*; worm-like annelids, as *serpula* and *vermicularia*; insects in the Stonefield slate and *lias* like the cockroach and dragon-fly—*gryllus* and *libellula*; crustacea like the lobster, *astacus*; and a profusion of shell-fish belonging to every order. Of these testacea we may notice the more characteristic forms, viz. the cockle-like bivalves, *cardium*, *isocardia*, and *trigonia*; the borers, *pholadomya* and *pholas*; the mussel-like *modiola*; the oysters, *ostrea* and *gryphæa*; the clams, *pecten* and *plagio-*



1, Gryphæa; 2, Ostrea; 3, Trigonia; 4, Avicula; 5, Nerinea.

stoma; the whorled univalves, *nerineæ*, and *pleurotomaria*; and above all, the chambered shells of the *ammonite*, *nautilus*, and *belemnite*. Of these testacea, the *gryphæa* is so abundant in the *lias*, that it is sometimes termed the "gryphite limestone," and for a similar reason one of the *Jura* oolites is called the "nerinean limestone." The most notable order of mollusca belonging to the period was undoubtedly the *cephalopodous*—that is, having their organs of motion arranged round the head,

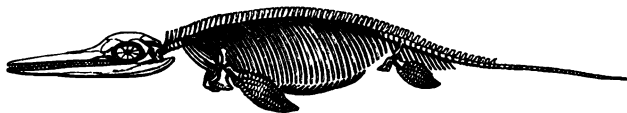
like the nautilus and cuttle-fish. Of these the ammonite (so called from its resemblance to the curved horn on the head of



1, *Ammonites obtusus*; 2, *A. Elizabethæ*; 3, *A. Nodosus*.

Jupiter Ammon) seems to have thronged the waters in many hundreds of species, and of all sizes, from shells of half an inch to shells of three feet in diameter. Gigantic cuttle-fishes were also the congeners of the ammonite and nautilus, and have left evidences of their existence in the *belemnites* (*belemnites*, a dart), which were the internal bones of these marvellous mollusca.

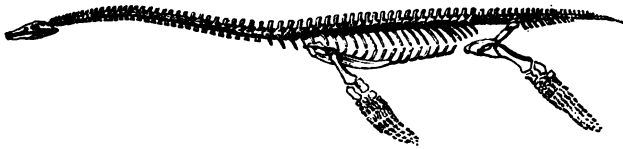
110. Of the higher or Vertebrated forms of life we have many examples of placoid and ganoid fishes, of sauroid reptiles, and one or two specimens of marsupial mammals. Of the ichthyolites, the teeth, *hybodus* and *acrodus*, resemble those of the shark-like *cestracion* now inhabiting the Australian seas; the spines are often nearly a foot in length, and serrated on one or both sides; and the large enamelled scales of the *lepidotus*, *tetragonolepis*, and others, bear testimony to the size of these estuary and marine fishes. Of the reptiles there are several forms of tortoise and turtle (*chelonias* and *platemys*); and others seem distinctly allied to the crocodiles, gavials, monitors, and iguanodons of tropical climates, but differing widely in their structure and apparent modes of existence. One of the most frequent forms is the *ichthyosaurus*.



Ichthyosaurus.

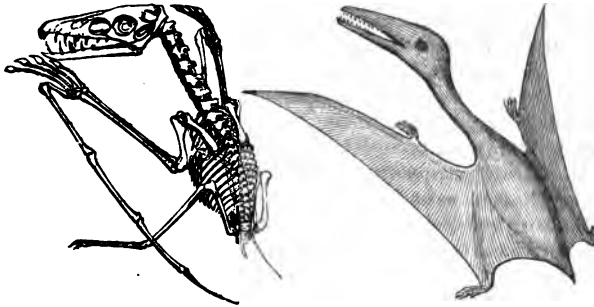
saurus (*ichthys*, a fish; and *saurus*, a lizard), somewhat resembling the crocodile, but furnished with paddles or flippers instead of limbs. Many species have been discovered, and hundreds of individuals varying in length from four to forty feet. Another

common form is the *plesiosaurus* (so called from its greater resemblance to the lizard tribe), distinguished by its enormous



Plesiosaurus.

length of neck, smaller head, and shorter body and tail. A third and frequent form is the *pterodactylus* (*pteron*, a wing; and *dactylus*, a finger), so called from being furnished with membranous



Pterodactyle.

wings, and capable, like the bats, of mounting in the air. Besides these, many other species of saurians have been figured and described by geologists—some aquatic, and others amphibious or terrestrial; some carnivorous, and others evidently herbivorous. They are generally known by such names as *cetiosaurus* (whale-like saurian), *megalosaurus* (great saurian), *geosaurus* (land saurian), *hylæosaurus* (forest saurian), *teleosaurus* (perfect saurian), and *iguanodon*, from the almost perfect identity of the teeth and skeleton of a huge fossil reptile found in the wealden to those of the living iguana of America. Of warm-blooded mammals we have evidence in certain jaw-bones, teeth, and detached bones found in the flaggy limestones of Stonesfield. These are ascribed to marsupial animals allied to the opossum and kangaroo of Australia, and have been named *amphitherium* (doubtful) and *phascolotherium* (*phaskolos*, a pouch). More recently, remains of insectivorous creatures have been detected in the Purbeck beds, thus adding a still higher type to the zoology of the oolite.

111. The igneous rocks associated with the oolite system in England are gentle outbursts of trap and intersecting dykes of greenstone. There appear to be no contemporaneous trap effusions, and, on the whole, the system retains much of its original sedimentary flatness. In the north and west of Scotland, and in the Jura mountains, it is upheaved and disrupted by granitic rocks, but these may be regarded as subordinate to the trappean compounds which occur in those ranges. The physical features of oolitic districts are by no means unpleasing—the alternations of limestones and clays on a grand scale producing a succession of rounded ridges and sloping valleys. These undulations are very marked in some districts of England and France, where the limestones, which have resisted denudation, compose the ridges, and the softer clays and shales the valleys. None of these ridges are of great height, and being on a limestone subsoil, are dry and fertile, and present a marked contrast to the stiff soils of the “coombs” and “wolds” occupied by the lias and wealden clays. The areas overspread by the oolitic system are rather limited and partial. It is most typically developed in England, where it occupies a broad stripe stretching from Yorkshire to Dorset; detached patches occur in the north and west of Scotland; and portions of the system are found in Germany, Switzerland, and France, where the oolitic members are generally known as the “Jurassic system.” It is found skirting the Apennines in Italy; flanking the southern Himalayas, and in Cutch in India; and recently equivalent beds, with workable seams of coal, have been detected near Richmond in Virginia.

112. Respecting the conditions of the world during the deposition of the wealden, oolite, and liassic strata, we have already stated that everything reminds us of a genial, if not of a tropical, climate. “The close approximation of the amphitherium and phascolotherium,” says Professor Owen, “to marsupial genera now confined to New South Wales and Van Diemen’s Land, leads us to reflect upon the interesting correspondence between other organic remains of the British oolite and other existing forms now confined to the Australian continent and adjoining seas. Here, for example, swims the *cestraction*, which has given the key to the nature of the palates from our oolite, now recognised as the *teeth* of congeneric gigantic forms of cartilaginous fishes. Not only *trigonia*, but living *terebratulæ* exist, and the latter abundantly, in the Australian seas, yielding food to the *cestraction*, as their extinct analogues doubtless did to the allied cartilaginous fishes called *acrodont* and *psammodont*, &c. Araucariæ and cycadeous plants likewise flourish on the Australian

continent, where marsupial quadrupeds abound, and thus appear to complete a picture of an ancient condition of the earth's surface, which has been superseded in our hemisphere by other strata, and a higher type of mammalian organisation."

113. Industrially, the system is by no means devoid of importance. Some of the oolite sandstones, like those of Bath and Portland, form excellent building-stones; while paving-stones and tilestones are obtained from the indurated flags of the wealden. Both the lias and oolite limestones are largely quarried for mortar, the latter, when well-prepared, furnishing an excellent hydraulic cement. Marbles of various quality are procured from the lower beds of the weald, in Sussex, and also from some of the coralline and shelly oolites, as at Whichwood Forest in Oxfordshire, whence the term "forest marble." Fuller's earth, at one time extensively used in woollen manufacture, is a product of the oolite; and alum is obtained from the lias shales of Yorkshire. Seams of coal, which are sometimes workable, occur in the oolite, as in Yorkshire, at Brora in Sutherlandshire, at several places in Germany, and near Richmond in Virginia. Jet, which is only a compact variety of coal, and lignite or wood-coal, are both found in the system, though neither is of much economic value.

RECAPITULATION.

The Oolitic system, as typically developed in England, is separable into three well-marked groups—the Lias, the Oolite, and Wealden. So distinct in many respects are these groups, that they are sometimes treated as independent systems, and in all likelihood the progress of discovery will soon establish the necessity of some such division. As it is, we have adopted the usual grouping, which may be briefly tabulated as follows :—

WEALDEN.	{ Weald clays.		
	{ Hastings sands.		
	{ Purbeck beds (classed by some with the upper oolite).		
OOLITIC or JURASSIC.	{	Portland stone and sand,	} <i>Upper.</i>
		Kimmeridge clay,	
		Coral rag,	} <i>Middle.</i>
	{	Oxford clay,	
		Cornbrash and forest marble,	} <i>Lower.</i>
		Bath or great oolite,	
LIASSIC.	{	Stonesfield slate,	
		Fuller's earth and clay,	
		Inferior oolite,	
LIASSIC.	{	Lias clays and marlstone.	
		Lias limestones and shales.	

From the preceding synopsis, it will be seen that the system is mainly composed of argillaceous limestones, limestones of oolitic texture, calcareous sandstones, shelly and coralline grits, clays and pyritous shales, with layers of coal, jet, and lignite. All the members are well developed in England; but it is chiefly the liassic and oolitic that are found in France, Switzerland, and Germany; and patches of the oolite in Scotland, in Hindustan, and in North America. As deposits, the lias and oolites are eminently oceanic, but the lower members of the wealden appear to be marine, while its upper are evidently of estuary or fresh-water formation. With the exception of the higher mammalia, almost every existing order is represented in the fauna of the oolite, but the forms are all Mesozoic, and died out at the close of the chalk era. The vegetation of the system is also extremely varied, but the highest orders appear to be coniferous, and as yet no example of a true exogenous timber tree has been detected. Of its numerous fossils, the most characteristic are the *cycadaceæ*, of which the stems, fruits, and leaves, are found in abundance; the shells of the *gryphææ*, so peculiarly plentiful in the lias; the coiled-up *ammonites* of innumerable species; the *pterodactyle*, or flying-lizard; the fresh-water and marine *turtles*; and, above all, the *ichthyosaurus*, *plesiosaurus*, and other sauroid reptiles, whose marvellous forms and variety have suggested for the oolite the not inappropriate title of "the age of reptiles." Still higher in the scale of being than these are the warm-blooded marsupial mammals, *amphitherium* and *phascolotherium*, and the insectivorous creature recently described by Professor Owen—the earliest of its kind as yet detected in the rocky crust. Building-stone, paving-stone, limestone, marble, alum, coal, jet, and lithographic slate, are the principal economic products of the system.

XII.

THE CHALK OR CRETACEOUS SYSTEM, COMPRISING THE CHALK AND GREENSAND GROUPS.

114. IMMEDIATELY above the fresh-water beds of the wealden in the south of England occur a set of well-defined marine sands, dark

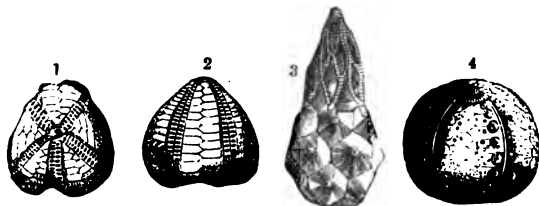
marl-clays, and thick beds of chalk. These strata, which seldom exceed in the aggregate 800 or 1000 feet in thickness, constitute the *Cretaceous system*—chalk (*creta*) being the most prominent and remarkable feature in the formation. Though neither of great thickness nor widely developed as to area, the Chalk is in many respects one of the most remarkable systems in the stratified crust, and has consequently long attracted the research of geologists. As the uppermost member of the younger secondaries, it closes the record of Mesozoic life, and of the innumerable species which composed the flora and fauna of the secondary epochs, not one has been detected in tertiary or post-tertiary strata. Lithologically, it is composed of cretaceous, argillaceous, and arenaceous rocks—the former predominating in the upper, and the two latter in the lower portion of the system. The strata, as occurring in the south of England, are usually grouped as follows:—

CHALK.	UPPER CHALK.—Generally soft white chalk, containing numerous flint and chert nodules more or less arranged in layers.
	LOWER CHALK.—Harder and less white than the upper, and generally with fewer flints. (Reddish in the north of England, and with abundance of flints).
	CHALK MARL.—A greyish earthy or yellowish marly chalk, sometimes indurated.
GREENSAND.	UPPER GREENSAND.—Beds of siliceous sand, occasionally indurated to chalky or cherty sandstone, of a green or greyish white, with nodules of chert.
	GAULT.—A provincial name for a bluish tenacious clay, sometimes marly, with indurated argillaceous concretions and layers of greensand.
	LOWER GREENSAND.—Beds of green or ferruginous sands, with layers of chert and indurated sandstones, local beds of gault, rocks of chalky or cherty limestone (Kentish rag), and fuller's earth.

115. The preceding synopsis affords a sufficient outline of the composition and succession of the chalk strata. Of course, considerable local differences occur, and it is sometimes difficult to determine the equivalents of the beds as typically developed in Kent and adjoining counties. Thus, the lower chalk of Yorkshire and of Havre in France contains abundant flint nodules; in Devon and Dorset a gritty bed with numerous fossils occurs towards the base of the chalk; in Norfolk and York a stratum of red chalk is thought to represent the gault of the southern counties; and the Kentish ragstone, which is largely quarried near Maidstone, is wholly unrepresented in the Isle of Wight.

The lower greensand is sometimes termed the "Neocomian group" (*Neocomiensis*, rock of Neufchatel), this portion of the system being thought to be more typically developed in the neighbourhood of Neufchatel in Switzerland; but recent facts scarcely support this view, and for all practical purposes the terms Chalk, Gault, and Greensand are sufficiently distinctive.

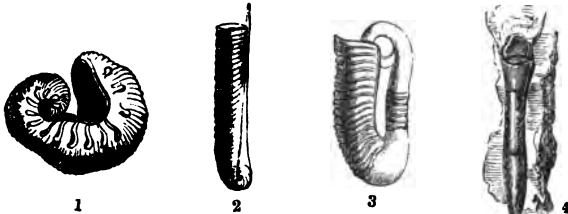
116. The organic remains found in the cretaceous system are, with a few exceptions, eminently marine, comprising fucoids, sponges, corals, star-fishes, molluscs, crustacea, fishes, and reptiles. As might be expected, FOSSIL PLANTS are comparatively rare, and these for the most part drifted and imperfect fragments. The marine species are apparently allied to the algae, confervæ, &c., and are termed *chondrites* and *confervites*. The terrestrial types "are fragments of tree-ferns, cones of coniferous trees, cycadites, and zamites, and are known by such names as *pinites*, *strobilites* (*strobilus*, a fir-cone), *carpolithes* (*carpos*, fruit), and *zamio-strobilus*. Of the ANIMAL remains, which are in general beautifully preserved, and to be seen in almost every collection, we can only notice one or two examples under each order or family. Of spongiform bodies we have the common and characteristic *choanites*, *spongia*, and *ventriculites*. Of zoophytes there are numerous *flustra*, *retepora*, *astrea*, *alveolites*, and *orbitolites*. Of echinoderms or sea-urchins there are many species in every state of perfection, as *cidaris*, *galerites*, *spatangus*, and *micraster*. Of



1, Spatangus : 2, Galerites : 3, Marsupites : 4, Cidaris.

foraminiferous shells, which compose in great part the chalk strata, there are *rotalia*, *dentalina*, *textularia*, &c. Of annelids abundant *serpularia* and *vermicularia*; and of crustaceans, species of lobsters, *astacus*, and of crabs, *pagurus*. The remains of testacea or shell-fish are extremely numerous, and in such a state of perfection that the conchologist can at once assign them a place in his classification. Of the characteristic bivalves may be noticed *arca*, *cardium*, *trigonia*, *gryphæa*, *inocera-*

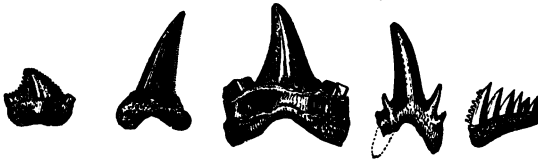
mus, *ostrea*, *pecten*, and *terebratula*, with the curious massive shells *hippurites* and *diceras*. Among the univalves or gasteropods, *cerithium*, *rostellaria*, *dentalium*, and *natica* are typical and characteristic. The chambered shells also appear in vast profusion and in highly curious forms. Of these the coiled-up *ammonite*, the dart-like *belemnite* (the "thunderbolts" of the English peasant), the hook-shaped *hamite*, (*hamus*, a hook), the



1, Scaphite: 2, Baculite: 3, Hamite: 4, Belemnite.

boat-shaped *scaphite* (*scapha*, a skiff), the rod-like *baculite* (*baculus*, a staff), and the *nautilus*, are the most frequent and typical.

117. The vertebrate remains are those of fishes and reptiles, with supposed indications of birds and mammalia. Of the fishes the majority are still placoid and ganoid; but the ctenoid and cycloid orders, to which almost all existing fishes belong, are here for the first time found in the rocky strata. Of the placoids the teeth and spines are as usual the only remains, the former being most abundantly represented by *acrodus*, *ptychodus* (wrinkle-tooth), and *lamna*, and the latter by *chimaera*. Of the ganoids,



Teeth from the Chalk.

lepidodus, *gyrodus* (twisted-tooth), and *pycnodus* (thick-tooth) are the most typical. Of the ctenoid or comb-scaled order several species of *beryx* (closely allied to the perch) have been detected; and of the cycloideans the *saurocephalus* and *osmeroides* are those most frequently found in collections. The

sauroid reptiles seem identical with or at least closely allied to those of the wealden, and are represented by *pterodactyles*, *plesiosaurus*, *mososaurus*, *iguanodon*, and *chelonis*. Bird bones termed *cimoliornis* (from *kimolia*, white chalk-marl, and *ornis*, a bird) have been described by Professor Owen, who has also surmised that certain mammalian remains are those of *quadrumana* or monkeys.

118. Regarding the geographical distribution of the chalk, though the several areas may be partial or limited, strata containing the peculiar fossils of the system have been discovered in many countries. As already mentioned, it is finely developed in the south and south-east of England; it is found in the north of Ireland; and from the frequent occurrence of flint nodules, it is supposed to have covered at one time the oolites of the north of Scotland. It is spread over wide areas in France and Germany; and occurs in connection with the Alps, Carpathians, and Pyrenees. Chalk fossils have been collected in the south of India; equivalents of the system have been investigated in the States of New Jersey, Texas, and Alabama; and strata apparently of the same age have been noticed in Colombia in South America.

119. Though exhibiting faults and fractures, no igneous rocks have been found associated with the chalk of England. In the north of Ireland the strata are disrupted and overlaid by basalt and other traps, as remarkably displayed at the Giant's Causeway; and in the Pyrenees and Alps the system partakes more or less of all those upheavals, by traps and secondary granites, which are so characteristic of these lofty ranges. Where unbroken by igneous eruptions, the physical aspect of Chalk districts is readily distinguished by the rounded outlines of their hills and valleys, as typically exhibited in the "wolds" and "downs" of Kent and Sussex. These downs are described as "covered with a sweet short herbage, forming excellent sheep-pasture, generally bare of trees, and singularly dry even in the valleys, which for miles wind and receive complicated branches, all descending in a regular slope, yet are frequently left entirely dry; and, what is more singular, contain no channel, and but little other circumstantial proof of the action of water, by which they were certainly excavated."

120. Combining all the features of the system—its composition, fossils, and geographical distribution—we are warranted in regarding the chalk as a truly marine deposit, filling up limited seas which were thronged with oceanic life, and which received at intervals the drift of rivers that flowed through countries enjoying

a high and genial temperature. The cycas and zamia are plants which betoken a warm climate; and though vegetable drift seldom appears among the chalk strata in such profusion as to form more than scattered patches of lignite (as in the lower measures near Rochelle), yet must this circumstance be ascribed more to the unfavourable position of the seas of deposit for the reception of such drift than to the scantiness of vegetation on the dry land. Again, the corals and huge sauroid reptiles betoken more of tropical than of temperate conditions, a circumstance that seems farther established by the presence of remains apparently allied to the monkeys. Respecting the conditions of the waters in which the chalk, so unlike ordinary limestones, were deposited, and within whose mass flints were subsequently aggregated, geologists are by no means agreed. This much, however, seems certain, that chalk is a mechanical deposit from waters loaded with calcareous particles, and abounding in minute foraminiferous shells, which constitute a large portion of the mass, and not, as at one time supposed, a precipitate from chemical solution. The abundance of enclosed sponges, corals, shells, and fragments of vegetables also confirms this view, and compels us to seek for the enclosed layers and nodules of flint an origin similar to that of nodules of ironstone and chert in shale. Flints are composed almost entirely of pure silex, with a trace of iron, clay, and lime; they are usually aggregated round some nucleus of sponge, shell, or coral; and there is no difficulty in conceiving the silex to have been originally in solution in the waters of deposit, and subsequently segregated in layers and nodules as we now behold it.

121. Industrially, the chief products of the system are chalk and flint. Chalk as an almost pure carbonate of lime is calcined like ordinary limestones, and employed by the bricklayer, plasterer, cement-maker, and farmer; and levigated, it furnishes the well-known "whiting" of the painter. Flint calcined and ground is used in the manufacture of china, porcelain, and flint-glass; and before the invention of percussion caps was in universal use for gun-flints. In the south of England flints are employed as road material; and the larger nodules are sometimes taken for the building of walls and fences. Beds of fuller's earth occur in the lower series; and some of the indurated strata, like the "Kentish rag" and Chalk-marl of Cambridgeshire, furnish local supplies of building-stone. From the Gault and Lower Greensand are also obtained those coprolitic nodules, now ground down and used as a manure, on account of their containing a large per-centage of phosphate of lime.

RECAPITULATION.

The Cretaceous system—so called from the chalk beds which form its most notable feature—is the last or uppermost of the secondary formations. All its types of life are strictly Mesozoic, and of the numerous species found in the Trias, Oolite, and Chalk not one has been detected in tertiary strata. As typically developed in the south of England, the system has been separated into two groups, the *Chalk* and *Greensand*, and these comprise, in descending order, the following members :—

CHALK.	{ Upper chalk with flints.
	{ Lower chalk without flints.
	{ Chalk marl.
GREENSAND.	{ Upper greensand.
	{ Gault.
	{ Lower greensand.

These various members, both in point of composition and fossil remains, bear evidence of deposit in seas of limited area, and of a climate suitable for the growth of cycadaceæ on land, and of corals and gigantic saurians and turtles in the waters. Palæontologically, its remains are eminently marine, and comprise numerous species of sponges, corals, star-fishes, sea-urchins, shell-fish, crustacea, fishes, and reptiles. Indications of bird and mammalian remains have also been detected, but these are too imperfect and obscure to warrant any definite conclusion. The chief and indeed the only industrial products of the system are chalk, flint, phosphate nodules, and some inferior building-stones.

XIII.

THE TERTIARY SYSTEM, EMBRACING THE EOCENE, MIOCENE,
PLIOCENE, AND PLEISTOCENE GROUPS.

122. THE earlier geologists, in dividing the stratified crust into primary, secondary, and tertiary formations, regarded as *tertiary* all that occurs above the Chalk. The term is still retained, but the progress of discovery has rendered it necessary to restrict and

modify its meaning. Even yet the limits of the system may be said to be undetermined—some embracing under the term all that lies between the chalk and boulder-drift, others including the drift and every other accumulation in which no trace of man or his works can be detected. Palæontologically speaking, much might be said in favour of both views, but the difficulty of unravelling the relations of many clays, sands, and gravels makes it safer to adopt in the mean time a somewhat provisional arrangement. We shall therefore treat as TERTIARY all that occurs above the chalk to the close of the drift, and as POST-TERTIARY every accumulation which appears to have been formed since that period. Adopting this arrangement, we have in England the following intelligible subdivisions :—

POST-TERTIARY.	{ RECENT and SUPERFICIAL ACCUMULATIONS occurring above the boulder-drift.
	{ PLEISTOCENE...Boulder-drift.
TERTIARY.	{ PLIOCENE.....Mammaliferous crag.
	{ MIOCENE.....Red and coralline crag.
	{ EOCENE.....Strata of London and Paris basins.

By adopting this view we get rid of certain anomalies connected with the boulder-drift, while there will be no difficulty in removing the pleistocene to the post-tertiary system, should subsequent discoveries render it necessary.

123. The organic types of the system above indicated are all *Cainozoic*—that is, are all more or less allied to, or even identical with, many existing genera. As at the close of the *Palæozoic* cycle, the graptolites, trilobites, pterichthys, cocosteus, megal-ichthys, stigmaria, sigillaria, and other forms of ancient life, had passed away, so, at the close of the *Mesozoic*, the ichthyosaurus, plesiosaurus, pterodactyle, palæoniscus, ammonites, and encrinites disappeared, and their place was taken by other and more recent-like forms. We now find among vegetables evidence of true exogenous timber-trees; a large per-centage of the corals and shells are identical with those of existing seas; the reptiles are carapaced turtles and tortoises; the fishes are chiefly ctenoids and cycloids, with equally lobed tails; birds of existing families are by no means rare; and examples of mammalia of all classes up to the highest save man have been detected. It is true that certain genera and species discovered in tertiary strata are not to be found beyond the limits of the pliocene group; and it is this extinction of many peculiar forms that warrants the separation of the post-tertiary from the tertiary system. The groups

are founded upon this perceptible approach to existing species—taking the fossil shells as the index. Thus, *eocene* (*eos*, the dawn, and *kainos*, recent) implies that the strata of this group contain only a small proportion of existing species, which may be regarded as indicating the dawn of existing things: *miocene* (*meion*, less) implies that the proportion of recent shells is less than that of extinct; *pliocene* (*pleion*, more), that the proportion of recent shells is more or greater than that of the extinct; and *pleistocene* (*pleiston*, most), that the shells of this group are mostly those of species now inhabiting the present seas.

Eocene, Miocene, and Pliocene Groups.

124. We arrange these groups under one head, because they are all evidently sedimentary deposits resulting from the usual operations of water, and because they are all less or more fossiliferous, and thus give evidence of the conditions of the world during the period of their deposition. The case is different with the pleistocene or boulder-drift group, which is clearly not an ordinary sedimentary deposit, and which, with rare exceptions, is altogether destitute of fossils. Confining our remarks to the three lower groups, we find the composition and succession of their strata so extremely varied and irregular, that it is next to impossible to give anything like a generally applicable description. This much may be said, that their areas are usually well defined, as if originally deposited in inland seas or estuaries; that they give evidence of frequent alternations of marine with fresh-water sediments; and, on the whole, are less consolidated than the rocks of older systems. They consist for the greater part of clays and sands, with interstratified limestones, calcareous grits, marls, and occasional layers of lignite. With respect to the composition and succession of their strata, the following synopsis of the English tertiaries will convey a better idea than any detailed description:—

- | | | |
|-----------|---|--|
| PLIOCENE. | { | MAMMALIFEROUS CRAG of Norfolk and Suffolk.—Consisting of shelly beds of sand, laminated clay, and yellowish loam, with layers of flinty shingle reposing on the chalk, and generally covered with a thick bed of gravel. |
| | { | RED CRAG of Norfolk and Suffolk.—A deep ferruginous shelly sand and loam, with an abundance of marine shells, frequently rolled and comminuted. |
| MIOCENE. | { | CORALLINE CRAG.—A mass of shells and corals in calcareous sand; or compact, and forming flaggy beds of limestone, with bands of greenish marl. Some of the harder portions are used as building-stone. |

Eocene.	{	FLUVIO-MARINE BEDS of Hampshire and Isle of Wight. —Consisting of clays and marls sometimes indurated, of sandy clays and subordinate layers of siliceous limestone.
		BAGSHOT SANDS.—A series of loose sands, sandstone, greenish sandy clay, and fissile marls.
		LONDON CLAY.—A brown or dark-blue or blackish tenacious clay, with layers of argillo-calcareous nodules. Layers of greenish sand, and masses of gypsum, and iron-pyrites not unfrequent.
		BOGNOR BEDS.—Occur towards the base of the London clay, and consist of calcareous and silicious nodules, or of coarse green indurated sand, with numerous marine shells.
		PLASTIC CLAY AND SANDS.—Composed of sand, shingle, mottled clays, and loam, with beds of rolled flints and marine shells.

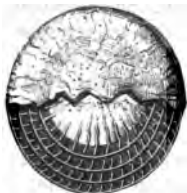
The above may be taken as sufficiently descriptive of the English tertiaries; and for the sake of comparison, we subjoin a section (in descending order) of the strata in the Paris basin, which are usually regarded as the equivalents of the English eocene:—

UPPER.	{	Upper fresh-water limestone marls and siliceous millstone (<i>burstone</i>).
		Upper marine sands or Fontainebleau sandstone and sands.
MIDDLE.	{	Lower fresh-water limestone and marl, or gypseous series.
		Sandstone and sands, with marine sands (<i>sables moyens</i>).
		Coarse sandy limestone, with marine shells (<i>calcaire grossier</i>).
LOWER.	{	Hard fresh-water limestone (<i>calcaire siliceux</i>).
		Lower sands, with marine shelly beds (<i>lits coquillier</i>).
		Lower sands, with lignite and plastic clay (<i>argile plastique</i>).

As with the Paris and English deposits, so with the other tertiary basins of Southern France, Spain, Austria, Hungary, Italy, &c.—all of them exhibiting an irregular succession of clays, sands, limestones, marls, gypsum, and lignites, which, when examined



1



2



3

1, 2, Nummulites: 3, Section of do.

lithologically and palæontologically, are clearly referable to the same period of formation. Among the most remarkable features

of foreign tertiaries are the *infusorial* and *nummulitic* strata—the former constituting such rocks as the “tripoli” of Bohemia and Virginia, and the latter the “nummulitic limestones,” so abundant in Southern Europe, Egypt, and Asia. The tripoli consists almost entirely of the siliceous coverings of infusorial animalcules, and is often of great thickness, as at Richmond in Virginia, where it is nearly thirty feet; and the nummulitic limestone, which is composed of coin-shaped (*nummus*, a coin) foraminiferous shells, is perhaps the most important of tertiary strata. Respecting this limestone, which was till recently regarded as belonging to the cretaceous system rather than to the base of the eocene tertiaries, Sir Charles Lyell remarks that “it often attains a thickness of many thousand feet, and extends from the Alps to the Apennines. It is found in the Carpathians, and in full force in the north of Africa—as, for example, in Algeria and Morocco. It has also been traced from Egypt into Asia Minor, and across Persia by Bagdad to the mouths of the Indus. It occurs not only in Cutch, but in the mountain ranges which separate Scinde from Cabul; and it has been followed eastward into India.”

125. With respect to the extent and distribution of the lower tertiaries—laying aside the nummulitic limestone, which is in some respects a peculiar and anomalous development—we have as yet no certain knowledge. As there is often no perceptible mineral distinction between many clays, sands, and gravels, it is only by their imbedded fossils that geologists can determine their tertiary or post-tertiary character. Many accumulations at present regarded as superficial may be found hereafter to be of older date; and thus it becomes difficult to fix with certainty the geographical limits of the system. So far as Europe is concerned, tertiary deposits have received considerable attention, and their area has been found to be much more extensive than was at one time supposed. In general, the deposits occupy well-defined tracts or basins; hence the frequent reference in works on geology to the “London basin,” “Hampshire basin,” “Paris basin,” and other tertiary tracts in Europe. As far as discovery has gone, there are few countries in Europe where tertiary strata have not been detected; and while we regard those of England, France, Austria, and Italy as typical, we must ever bear in mind that considerable modifications may require to be made, as the tertiaries of India and North and South America come to be more closely examined. One important fact must not be lost sight of in drawing any general conclusions from the distribution of tertiary deposits—viz., that as the fauna and flora of the period approach in

character the fauna and flora of existing nature, and that as the plants and animals of Europe, India, Australia, South America, &c., all differ widely from each other, so may we expect similar differences among the fossil remains of these distant regions. And this, as will afterwards be seen, is fully borne out—the tertiary mammals of South America resembling the sloths, armadilloes, ant-eaters, and alpacas of that continent; those of Australia its marsupial kangaroos and opossums; while those of the Old World have more immediate relationship to its elephants, rhinoceroses, and horses.

126. The igneous rocks associated with the system are, with the exception of a few doubtful cases, all of true volcanic origin. In England the tertiary strata have suffered no displacement or change from igneous action; but in Central France, along the Rhine, in Switzerland, in Hungary, and in Italy, there are ample evidences of volcanic activity during the deposition of the system. The crateriform hills of Auvergne and the Rhine present the finest examples of this activity, and form, as it were, a connecting link between the secondary traps and the products of existing volcanoes. In their mineral composition the tertiary traps are chiefly trachytic—graduating from a compact felspathic grey-stone to a scoriaceous tufa, but in no instance presenting the dark, augitic, and basaltiform structure of the carboniferous traps, nor the amygdaloidal and porphyritic texture of those associated with the old red sandstone and silurian.

127. As already stated, the organic remains of the system are all of *cainozoic* types—that is, either closely resemble, or are identical with, existing genera and species. Of course, since the commencement of the Eocene period, many forms of life have died away, and it is to these extinct families rather than to those still surviving, that we shall now direct attention. The Flora of the tertiary exhibits few marine species—the nature of the deposits being apparently unfavourable for their preservation; but the fluvi-marine beds contain remains that can be referred to the cycadaceæ, palms, coniferæ, leguminosæ, willows, elms, sycamores, &c. Detached leaves, fruits, seeds, and seed-vessels are common in the London basin; and the lignites of the Continent exhibit the true dicotyledonous structure. Such names as *carpollithes* (*carpos*, fruit), *cupressinites* (*cupressus*, the cypress-tree), *faboidea* (*faba*, a bean), *leguminosites* (*legumen*, a pod), *tricarpellites*, *chara*, and the like, sufficiently indicate the external appearance and supposed alliances of these vegetable fossils. Of the Fauna, the invertebrate orders—infusoria, corals, star-

fishes, sea-urchins, serpulæ, barnacles, foraminifera, crustacea, and shell-fishes—are extremely abundant, both numerically and in point of species. So closely related are many of the testacea to those of our present seas, that, as formerly stated, the groups *eocene*, *miocene*, &c., have been instituted on the per-centage of existing shells found in their strata. Thus :

Pleistocene,	from 90 to 98	of living species.		
Pliocene,	" 60 to 80	" "		
Miocene,	" 20 to 30	" "		
Eocene,	" 1 to 3	" "		

With respect to the *fishes* of the tertiary epoch, "they are so nearly related," says M. Agassiz, "to existing forms, that it is often difficult, considering the enormous number (above 8000) of living species, and the imperfect state of preservation of the fossils, to determine exactly their specific relations. In general, I may say that I have not yet found a single species which was perfectly identical with any marine existing fish, except the little species which is found in nodules of clay, of unknown geological age, in Greenland." The most common *ichthyolites* in the English tertiaries are the shark-like teeth of gigantic placoids which seem to have thronged these waters. Among the *reptiles*, the most abundant are fresh-water and marine turtles (*chelonias* and *platemys*), with true analogues of the existing crocodile and gaviel. Of *birds*, several species have been described, chiefly from the Paris strata, and these would seem to be connected with the genera, buzzard, quail, curlew, sea-lark, wood-cock, pelican, and vulture. Of the *mammalia*, every existing order has had its tertiary representatives, though many of these genera are now extinct. Thus, the *cetacea* (whales) are represented by several species; the *edentata* (toothless animals), by gigantic

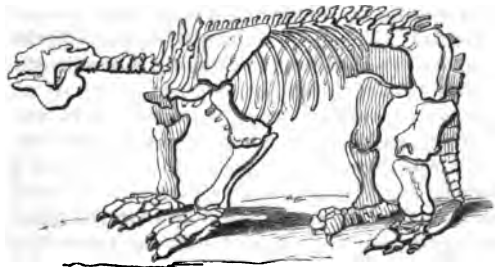


1, Deinotherium : 2, Palæotherium.

analogues of the sloth, armadillo, and ant-eater; the *ruminantia* (cud-chewers), by several species of elk, stag, antelope, buffalo,

ox, &c. ; the *pachydermata* (thick-skins), by numerous forms—as mastodon, deinotherium, elephant, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, hog, tapir, and a number of creatures resembling the tapir—as *palæotherium* (*palaïos* ancient, and *therium* wild beast), *anoplotherium*, &c. ; the *rodentia* (gnawers), by a number of species allied to the beaver, hare, rat, squirrel, &c. ; the *carnivora* (flesh-devourers), by species of bear, hyæna, fox, dog, seal, &c. ; the *insectivora* (insect-eaters), by remains of a species of mole ; the *cheiroptera* (hand-winged), by two or three species of bat from the gypsum beds of Montmartre ; the *marsupialia* (pouch-nursing), by several species allied to the kangaroo and opossum ; and the *quadrumana* (four-handed), by one or two instances from the eocene beds of England, apparently related to the Old-world monkeys. Thus, every order of mammal, with the exception of man, has its representative during the tertiary epoch—differing it may be in certain species, but still presenting on the whole such a facies of resemblance, that one feels that he is approaching the confines of existing nature.

128. Respecting the distribution of sea and land, and the climatal conditions of the world during the deposition of the tertiary strata, it is difficult to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion. It is certain, however, that one or other of the groups is to be found in every region ; that in some instances they are strictly marine, and in others as decidedly fresh-water ; while in many basins, as in England and France, they are partly fresh-water and partly marine, as if there had been frequent sub-



Megatherium.

mergences and elevations, or, at all events, periods when fresh-water inundations prevailed in the areas of deposit. As to physical conditions, the cycads and palms and monkeys of the London basin give evidence of a tropical climate—a fact further

corroborated by the huge pachyderms of the Paris strata, the gigantic edentata of South America, and larger marsupials of Australia. On the whole, there seem to have been wide areas of shallow seas thronged with the humbler forms of marine life, and low sunny islands crowned with cycads and palms; broad estuaries prowled in by sharks; rivers swarming with crocodiles; open pasture-plain for the horse and buffalo; and dense woody jungles for the mastodon, deinotherium, and rhinoceros.

129. The industrial products of the system are building-stone and marbles of various quality; pipe and potter's clay in abundance; gypsum, or the well-known "plaster of Paris;" and the highly-valued *burr* millstone of France, which is obtained from the upper fresh-water limestones of the Paris basin. Lignite or "brown coal" is also worked in several tertiary districts; and amber, which is a fossil gum or gum-resin, is likewise obtained from the lignitic beds of the series.

Pleistocene Group.

130. This group, as the name implies, is intended to embrace all tertiary accumulations, the organic remains of which are chiefly referable to existing species. In the present state of geological knowledge, it is impossible to define with precision the limits of pleistocene tertiaries, and all that can be attempted is to arrange under one head the clays, sands, gravels, and boulders generally known as the "drift formation." As a whole, there is no class of rocks so perplexing, or whose origin is involved in greater obscurity, than this "drift" or "boulder clay"—the "diluvium" of the earlier geologists. Composed in some districts of irregular ridges and mounds of sharp gravelly sand; in others of expanses of pebbly shingle; and more generally, perhaps, of various coloured clays enclosing, without regard to arrangement, water-worn blocks or *boulders* of all sizes, from a pound to several tons in weight, it is evident that it does not owe its origin to the ordinary sedimentary operations of water. It is also for the most part unfossiliferous; marine shells being found, and that very sparingly, only in certain sands and clays apparently belonging to the same epoch. Under these circumstances it will be sufficient for the purposes of the beginner to describe the leading phenomena connected with its occurrence in the British Islands and north of Europe, and to direct his attention to some of the theories that have been advanced to account for its formation.

131. It has been already stated that the pleistocene group consists of accumulations of clays, sands, gravels, and boulder-stones—the latter sometimes lying detached or in masses, but more frequently enclosed in the clays without regard to gravity or any other law of arrangement. We say “accumulations of clays, sands, &c.,” because these seldom or ever appear in regular strata, but here in masses, and there spread over wide tracts, as if brought together by some unusual and extraordinary operation of water. These unusual appearances have long and largely engaged the attention of observers; hence the variety of designations such as “diluvium,” “diluvial drift,” “northern drift,” “erratic-block group,” and “boulder formation.” When we examine the group as it occurs in Britain, we find it in some tracts (eastern counties of England) an open gravelly drift, consisting of fragments of all the older rocks, from the granite to the chalk inclusive. In other districts, as the middle counties of Scotland, large areas are covered with a thick, dark, tenacious clay, locally known by the name of “till,” and enclosing rounded and water-worn boulders, as well as angular fragments of all the older and harder rocks—granite, gneiss, greenstone, basalt, limestone, and the more indurated sandstones. The boulders are of all sizes, are most frequently rounded and water-worn, and are distributed throughout the mass without any regard to sedimentary deposition. In other localities, both in England and Scotland, we find large areas covered by loose rubbly shingle and sand; the shingle and sand often appearing in mound-like ridges, or in flat-topped irregular mounds, as if the originally gravel deposit had been subsequently furrowed and worn away by currents of water. Occasionally districts are thickly strewn with boulders which rest on the bare rock-formations, without any accompanying clays or sands; and at times only a single gigantic boulder will be found reposing on some height as sole evidence of the drift formation. When we come to examine the clays and sands more minutely, we find them partaking less or more of the mineral character of their respective districts. Thus, the boulder-clays of our coal-fields, though thickly studded with boulders of distant and primitive origin, are usually dark-coloured, and contain fragments of coal, shale, and other carboniferous rocks. The same may be remarked of old and new red sandstone districts, where the clays are usually red; and of oolitic and chalk tracts, where they assume a yellowish or greyish aspect.

132. In addition to what has been stated respecting the composition of the drift, it may be remarked that the sands seldom

exhibit lines of stratification, and that the clays are rarely or ever laminated. Occasionally sands and clays alternate, or a dark-coloured clay may be overlaid by a lighter-coloured one; but more frequently sands and clays occur *en masse*, enclosing curious "nests" or patches of gravel, and crowded accumulations of boulder-stones. On examining the surfaces of many of these boulders we find scratches and groovings, as if they had been rubbed forcibly over each other in one direction; and what is still more curious, the surfaces of the rocks on which the boulder-clay reposes are all less or more smoothed, and marked with bold linear scratches and furrows, as if the boulders had been forcibly carried forward, and had scratched and grooved them during the passage. Again, these scratches and groovings all trend in one direction, and that generally in lines parallel to the hill-ranges and valleys in which they occur. Moreover, most of the hills, as in Britain, present a bare bold craggy face to the west and north-west, as if worn and denuded by water, while their slopes to the east and south-east are usually masked with thick accumulations of clay, sand, and gravel. This appearance, generally known by the name of "crag and tail," is ascribed to the same moving forces or currents which transported the enormous boulders of the Drift, and furrowed the surfaces of the rock-formations over which they were borne.

133. Taking all these phenomena into account, it is quite clear that pleistocene accumulations owe their origin to no ordinary operations of water. We can conceive of no current sufficiently powerful to transport boulder blocks of many tons in weight over hill and dale for hundreds of miles; of no sedimentary conditions that would permit boulders and clays to be huddled up in the same indiscriminate mass; while the smoothing and grooving of rock-surfaces point to long-continued action, and not to any violent cataclysm in nature, even could we conceive of one sufficiently powerful to transport the blocks and boulders. There is only one set of physical conditions with which we are acquainted sufficient to account for all the phenomena; namely, Arctic lands with glaciers and avalanches to wear and waste, and Arctic seas with icebergs and ice-floes to transport the eroded material; and it is now to such conditions that geologists turn for a solution of the boulder formation. After the deposition of the lower tertiaries, it would seem that the latitudes of Britain and the north of Europe underwent a vast revolution as to climate, and that some new arrangement of sea and land took place at the same period. At all events, the large mammalia of the earlier tertiaries

disappeared, and the land was submerged to the extent of several thousand feet, for we now find water-worn boulders on the tops of our highest hills. A cold period ensued, and icebergs, laden with boulders and gravel from other regions, passed over these latitudes, and dropped their boulders on our then submerged lands. How long this continued it is impossible to determine; but by-and-by a gradual elevation of the submerged lands took place; our hill tops and ranges appeared as islands; and our valleys as firths and straits. These islands were now covered periodically with glaciers, and during a brief summer avalanches descended, glaciers smoothed the hill-sides and left the debris as *moraines* of sand and gravel; while the icebergs and ice-floes ground their way through the firths, smoothing and grooving the surfaces of opposing rocks, and dropping, as they melted away, their burdens of silt and boulders on the deeper sea-bottom. As the elevation continued, new surfaces were exposed, the western fronts of our hills were wasted by waves and swept bare by currents, and the soft material of the sea-bottom, as it rose above the waters, was washed away and carried to areas of sea-bottom not yet elevated above the waters. We say the "western," or rather "north-western," front of our hills; for taking the phenomena of crag and tail into account, the direction of the groovings on rock-surfaces, and other kindred appearances, it is evident that in Britain the transporting currents passed from north and west to south and east. It is thus that we find granitic and gneiss boulders from the Scottish Highlands now spread over the plains of Fife and Mid-Lothian, and blocks from the hills of Cumberland scattered over the moors of Yorkshire. In the north of Europe the drift has taken a more southerly course, and thus boulders from Lapland and Finland are spread over the plains of Russia and Poland; and granites from Norway now repose on the flats of Denmark and Holstein. Occasionally, as in Switzerland, the drift appears to radiate from a centre; and this we can readily conceive as the Alps rose isolated in a glacial sea, and annually dispersed its glaciers and icebergs in every direction.

134. In process of time the land was elevated to its present level, another distribution of sea and land took place, and the glacial epoch passed away. A new Flora and Fauna suitable to those new conditions was then established in Europe; and these, with the exception of a few that have since become extinct, are the species which now adorn our forests and people our fields. Hitherto we have spoken only of the "Drift" as exhibited in Northern Europe; but similar phenomena are manifested in

Canada and the Northern States of America. Again, when we turn to the Antarctic ocean, analogous appearances present themselves in Terra del Fuego and Patagonia; thus showing that, as at the present day icebergs and ice-floes are yearly discharged from the Arctic and Antarctic seas, float towards warmer latitudes, and drop their burdens of sand, mud, and boulders on the sea-bottom; so during the pleistocene epoch the same agencies were at work discharging the same functions, and producing analogous results.

RECAPITULATION.

The Tertiary system, as described in the preceding chapter, embraces all the regular strata and sedimentary accumulations which lie between the Chalk and the close of the Boulder or Drift Formation. Its organic remains are all of recent or *Cainozoic* types, and it has been subdivided into four groups, according to the numerical amount of existing species found imbedded in its strata, thus—

Pleistocene—remains, mostly of existing species.

Pliocene—remains, a majority of existing species.

Miocene—remains, a minority of existing species.

Eocene—remains, few, or the dawn, of existing species.

In their mineral composition and succession these groups present great variety—consisting of clays, sands, marls, calcareous grits, limestones, gypsum, and beds of lignite, with evidences of frequent alternations from marine to fresh-water conditions. On the whole, clays and limestones prevail, and many of the latter are of very peculiar character, as the fresh-water burrstones of Paris, the gypsum or sulphate-of-lime beds of Montmartre, the infusorial tripoli of Bohemia, and the nummulitic limestone of the Alps, Egypt, and India. Separating the older or true tertiaries from the pleistocene or boulder group, it may be said that the former are found less or more in almost every country, though often confined to limited areas, as if originally deposited in inland seas or estuaries. These well-defined deposits are usually termed “basins;” hence the frequent allusion to the London and Paris basins, in which there are frequent alternations of marine and fresh-water beds, as if at certain stages fresh-water inundations had prevailed in the areas of deposit. The tertiaries of England, France, Switzerland, and Italy, are those that have been most

fully investigated, and, though differing in the composition and succession of their strata, are generally regarded as finding their equivalents in those of England, which may be briefly grouped as under :—

PLEISTOCENE.	{ Fossiliferous clays and sands of Clyde, Forth, &c. Boulder or drift formation.
PLIOCENE.	{ Mammaliferous crag.
MIOCENE.	{ Red crag. Coralline crag.
	{ Fluvio-marine beds of Isle of Wight.
EOCENE.	{ Bagshot sands. London clay. Bognor beds. Plastic clay.

As already stated, the organic remains of the system belong in greater part to existing species, and thus among the *plants* we find the leaves, fruits, and seed-vessels of palms, cycadæ, pines, and, for the first time, of true exogenous timber-trees; while among the *animals* we discover species of every existing order, with the exception of man. The most characteristic feature of the Fauna is perhaps the abundance of gigantic quadrupeds—in European tertiaries, of mastodons, elephants, deinotheriums, palæotheriums, rhinoceroses, &c.; in South America, of megatheriums, megalonyxes, glyptodons, &c.; and in Australia, of animals allied to the marsupials of that continent, but of more gigantic proportions. The names given to these animals have reference in general to some striking peculiarity of structure, size, or appearance; as *mastodon*, from the pap-like crowns of its teeth (*mastos*, a nipple, and *odous*, a tooth); *glyptodon* (*glyptos*, carved or sculptured), from the curious markings of its teeth; *megalonyx* (*megalè*, great, and *onyx*, a claw), from its large claws; *deinotherium* (*deinos*, terrible), terrible wild beast; *megatherium*, huge wild beast; and so on of others. In respect of its fossils, the tertiary era presents a remarkable difference compared with those of the chalk, oolite, or coal. During these epochs the plants and animals in every region of the globe presented a greater degree of sameness or identity; whereas, during the tertiary epoch, geographical distinctions and separations like those now existing began to prevail; hence the difference between the tertiary mammals of Europe and those of South America, which represent its present sloths, ant-eaters, and armadilloes. Whatever the conditions of other regions during the deposition of the tertiary strata, we have evidence from the palms, cycadæ, huge pachyderms, and monkeys, that in the latitudes now occu-

pied by England and France, a warm or tropical climate prevailed; and that at the close of the pliocene strata, these conditions were followed by those of an arctic or boreal character, which gave rise to the boulder or drift formation. As a separate group, the pleistocene in its unfossiliferous clays, its huge water-worn boulders, its smoothed and scratched rock-surfaces, and other kindred phenomena, gives evidence of a long period when these latitudes were subjected to arctic conditions, when glaciers covered its hills and islands, and icebergs floated over its waters or ground their way through its firths and straits, smoothing and grooving opposing rock-surfaces, and dropping, as they melted away, their burdens of clay, sand, and boulders on the deeper sea-bottom.

XIV.

POST-TERTIARY SYSTEM, COMPRISING ALL ALLUVIAL DEPOSITS, PEAT-MOSSES, CORAL-REEFS, RAISED BEACHES, AND OTHER RECENT ACCUMULATIONS.

135. HAVING treated the Boulder-drift as the latest member of the Tertiary System, we now proceed to describe, under the term *Post-Tertiary*, all accumulations and deposits formed since the close of that epoch. However difficult it may be to account for the conditions that gave rise to the "Drift," there can be no doubt regarding the agencies which have been at work ever since in silting up lakes and estuaries, forming peat-mosses and coral-reefs, and laying down beaches of sand and gravel. At the close of the Pleistocene period, the present distribution of sea and land seems to have been established; the land presenting the same surface-configuration, and the sea the same coast-line, with the exception of such modifications as have since been produced by the atmospheric, aqueous, and other causes described in Chapter II. At the close of that period the earth also appears to have been peopled by its present Flora and Fauna, with the exception of some local extinctions of certain animals, and the general extinction of a few species, whose remains are found imbedded in a partially petrified or *sub-fossil* state in post-tertiary accumulations. We are thus introduced to the existing order of things; and though our observations may

extend over a period of many thousand years, yet every phenomenon is fresh and recent compared with those of the epochs already described. With the exception of volcanic lavas, deposits from calcareous and siliceous springs, some consolidated sands and old coral-reefs, we have now no solid strata—the generality of post-tertiary accumulations being clays, silts, sands, gravels, and peat-mosses. As they are scattered indiscriminately over the surface, it is impossible to treat them in anything like order of superposition; hence the most intelligible mode of presenting them to the beginner, is to arrange them according to their composition, and the causes obviously concerned in their production. Adopting this plan, the principal agencies and their results may be classed as follows :—

FLUVIATILE.	{ Accumulations of sand, gravel, and alluvial silt in valleys.
	{ Terraces of gravel, &c. in valleys, marking former water-levels.
	{ Deposits of sand, silt, &c. in estuaries, forming "Deltas."
LACUSTRINE.	{ Lacustrine accumulations now in progress.
	{ Lacustrine or lake silt filling up ancient lakes.
	{ Shell and clay-marl formed in ancient lake-basins.
MARINE.	{ Submarine deposits and accumulations.
	{ Marine silt, sand-drift, shingle beaches, &c.
	{ Raised or ancient beaches; submarine forests.
CHEMICAL.	{ Calcareous deposits, as calc-tuff, travertine, &c.
	{ Siliceous deposits, as siliceous sinter, &c.
	{ Saline and sulphurous deposits from hot springs, volcanoes, &c.
ORGANIC.	{ Bituminous exudations, as pitch-lakes and the like.
	{ Vegetable—peat-mosses, jungle growth, vegetable-drift.
	{ Animal—shell-beds, coral-reefs, osseous breccia, &c.
IGNEOUS.	{ Soils—admixtures of vegetable and animal matters.
	{ Elevations and depressions caused by earthquakes.
	{ Displacements produced by volcanic eruptions.
	{ Discharges of lava, scorise, dust, and other matters.

Carefully reviewing the above synopsis, and bearing in mind what was stated in Chapter II. respecting the causes now modifying the crust of the globe, the student need be presented with little more than a mere indication of these accumulations.

Fluvatile Accumulations.

136. Under this head are comprehended all accumulations and deposits resulting from the operations of rivers. We have

already seen (pars. 17 and 18) how streams and rivers cut for themselves channels, glens, and valleys, and transport the eroded materials in the state of mud, sand, and gravel to some lower level. During inundations and freshets, some of this debris is spread over the river plains : in ordinary cases, some of it is deposited in lakes and marshes, should such lie in its course ; and in all cases a notable proportion is lodged in estuaries or carried out into the ocean. The natural tendency of rivers being thus to deepen their channels, and spread the eroded material over the lower levels, all river-valleys will in course of time become dry plains, even though originally consisting of marshes and chains of lakes. Such operations have been going on since the land received its present configuration ; and thus we have fluviatile deposits of vast antiquity, as well as accumulations whose origin is but of yesterday. Such alluvial tracts as the "carses" and "straths" of Scotland, and the "dales" and "holmes" of England, have been formed in this way ; and in many of these have been found the bones of elephants, rhinoceroses, wild boars, elks, bears, wolves, beavers, and other animals long since extinct in the British Islands. Such accumulations are often of great thickness, and consist for the most part of alluvial silt, masses of gravel and shingle, with occasional beds of fine dark-blue unctuous clay, and layers of peat-moss and shell-marl.

137. In most of the inland valleys of this and other countries there appear, belting their slopes, long level terraces composed of sand, shingle, and silt. Such terraces give evidence of former water-levels, and point to a time when the valley was occupied by a lake at that height, or when the plain stood at that level, and before the river had worn its channel down to the present depth. River-terraces must not be confounded with the raised beaches which fringe many parts of our coasts and estuaries ; for, though both are in one sense ancient water-levels, the former may be local and partial, while the latter are general and uniform. Besides, the remains found in the one are of terrestrial or fresh-water origin ; in the other they are strictly marine. These terraces have long attracted attention, and point to a time when many of our fertile valleys were chains of lakes and morasses, which have been drained and converted into alluvial land by the natural deepening of their river-channels.

138. At the mouths or in the estuaries of all existing rivers there have been accumulating, since sea and land received their present configuration, deposits of mud, sand, gravel, and vegetable debris. In course of time these deposits constitute large

expanses of low alluvial land, known as "Deltas," the most notable instances of which are those of the Rhine and Po in Europe, of the Nile and Niger in Africa, of the Ganges and Chinese rivers in Asia, and of the Mississippi and Amazon in America. Many of these deposits are of vast extent, and, with the exception of what is taking place at the bottom of the ocean (of which we know almost nothing), they are of all modern formations the most important in modifying the crust of the globe. Where a river discharges itself into a non-tidal sea, like the Po into the Gulf of Venice, the delta will be mainly of fluvial origin; but where the discharge is into a tidal sea, like the Ganges into the Bay of Bengal, the deposit will be partly fluvial and partly marine. Further, the deltas of tropical rivers subject to periodical inundations are, during the dry season, low flat tracts full of swamps, creeks, and mud-islands, which nourish the rankest jungle growth, herds of gigantic amphibia, shell-beds, and shoals of fishes. On the return of the wet season, many of these plants and animals are buried where they grow, or are swept forward into the ocean. We have thus a complex set of agents, rivers, tides, waves—the drift from inland, the drift from the sea, and the growth of plants and animals *in situ*. All these conjoined render estuary deposits extremely perplexing and irregular in their composition; and though in general terms they may be said to consist of mud, clay, sand, gravel, and vegetable debris, intermingled with organisms of terrestrial, fresh-water, and marine origin, yet scarcely two of them present one feature in common. In their fossil contents they must vary also, according to the countries in which they are situated; the Ganges, for example, entombing in its delta the palms, tree-ferns, elephants, tigers, and lions of India; the Niger, the palms, the elephant, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, giraffe, camel, and ostrich of Africa; while the Mississippi floats down the pines, buffaloes, elk, deer, and beavers of North America.

Lacustrine or Lake Deposits.

139. Lacustrine deposits (*lacus*, a lake) are those found either in existing lakes, or occupying the sites of lakes now filled up. Lakes are found in every region of the world, and act as settling-pools or filters for the rivers that flow through them. A river on entering a lake may be turbid and muddy, while the water that flows from it is limpid and clear as crystal. The mud or sand

settles down as silt, and successive depositions of silt, with inter-mixtures of vegetable drift and peat-moss and marl, constitute the ordinary composition of lacustrine accumulations. Situated in plains or valleys, a lake serves in general as a basin of reception to several streams and rivers. The mud borne down by these streams settles at their mouths, and forms small deltas, which, in process of time, are covered with rushes, reeds, sedges, and other marsh plants; new accumulations of sediment push their way into the centre of the lake, and new growths of marsh plants arise. The annual growth and decay of these plants form beds of peat; while fresh-water shells, infusorial animalcules, and calcareous springs, combine to elaborate layers of marl. These agencies, acting incessantly, are gradually shoaling and silting up all lakes; lessening the areas of some, converting others into marshes, and these again into dry alluvial land. Silted-up lakes are rife in every country, and a great proportion of our alluvial valleys are but the sites of marshes and lakes filled up and obliterated by the process above described. The organic remains found in lake deposits are strictly fresh-water and terrestrial—fresh-water shells, as the *limnæa*, *planorbis*, and *paludina*, in the marls; marsh plants, as the reed, bulrush, and *equisetum*, in the peat-moss; drift or terrestrial plants, as the birch, hazel, oak, pine, &c. in the silt; with bones, and sometimes complete skeletons, of the elk, deer, ox, horse, bear, beaver, otter, and other mammalia. In many of the lake deposits of Britain, Ireland, France, and Belgium, canoes, stone battle-axes, bone weapons, and other objects of human art have been discovered, all pointing to the recent period of geology, though historically of vast antiquity, and far beyond the written records of our race.

Marine Deposits.

140. The marine deposits of the modern epoch naturally divide themselves into three great classes—those taking place under the waters of the ocean, as sandbanks and shoals; those collecting along the sea margin, as sand-drift and shingle-beaches; and those, like ancient beaches, now elevated above the level of the present seas. Respecting the first class of deposits, we know very little indeed, few parts of the ocean having been sounded for geological purposes; and even where sounded, the indications are too obscure to warrant any definite conclusion. So far as dredgings and soundings enable us to decide what is going on under

the waters, submarine deposits appear to be extremely varied—here soft slimy mud, there light-coloured clay, with shells ; here shelly sand, replete with minute foraminifera and broken corals ; there sandy shoals and gravel-banks ; and over the whole, elevations and depressions as irregular and varied as those of the dry land. Such irregularities of sea-bottom, conjoined with the configuration of sea and land, give rise to numerous currents, and these currents not only distribute the submarine debris, but transport the products of one region to another. The principal ocean-currents are the tides, with all their varied ramifications, the gulf-stream, and the currents which set in from either pole towards the equator. The tidal currents are perpetually shifting and re-distributing the deposits along the sea-bottom ; the gulf-stream is as regularly transporting tropical products to temperate regions ; and the polar currents carry with them icebergs and ice-floes laden with rocks and gravel, which are dropped on the sea-bottom as the ice melts away in warmer latitudes. All these agents are incessantly at work ; and thus deposits are now accumulating along the bottom of the ocean, which, if raised into dry land, would equal in extent any of the older formations.

141. Marine silt, sand-drift, shingle-beaches, and the like, are the terms usually applied to accumulations which have taken place, or are still in progress, along the present shores of the ocean. Waves and tidal transport are the agents to which these owe their origin ; they occur in bays and sheltered recesses, and, as strictly *marine* formations, are not to be confounded with the silt of estuaries and river embouchures. Around the shores of our own island, and, in fact, along the shores of every other country, the tides and waves are wasting away the land in some localities, and transporting the debris to sheltered bays and creeks, there to be laid down as mud-silt, sand, or gravel. This process must have been going forward since sea and land acquired their present distribution, and thus many of these accumulations are both of vast extent and great antiquity. As examples of marine silt, we may point to the "warp" of the Humber, to the fens and marshes of Lincolnshire and Cambridge, and to the low plains of Holland and Denmark, which are all the immediate formation of the German Sea. Of sand-drift, which is first accumulated by the tides and waves, and subsequently blown into irregular heights and hollows by the winds, we have instructive instances in the Bay of Biscay near the Garonne, between Donegal Bay and Sligo Bay in Ireland, and between the Tay and Eden in Scotland. Of these recently-formed silts and sand-drifts, thousands of acres lie

waste and worthless ; but of the older portions large tracts have been reclaimed, and are now under the plough of the farmer. Their organic remains are of all ages, from the drift of the last tide to the half-petrified bones of whales and shells of mollusca now extinct in these seas.

142. All along the shores of the British Islands, as well as along the shores of every other sea, there exists a level margin, more or less covered with sand and gravel. This constitutes the existing *beach*, or sea-margin ; but above it, at various heights, are found, following the bays and recesses of the land, several similar margins or terraces known as "ancient or raised beaches." These give evidence either of elevation of the land or depression of the ocean, and point to times when sea and land stood at these successive levels. We have several notable examples along our own coast, at heights about twenty, forty, and eighty feet above the present sea-level ; and similar indications are found along the coast of Norway, the shores of the Baltic, in the Bay of Biscay, along the coasts of Spain ; and recently elevated water-levels have been discovered on the coasts of both Americas. In some districts these terraces are covered with sand, shells, and shingle ; in other localities, a mere shelf or line along a hill-side bears evidence of the former presence of the tides and waves. As raised beaches seem to point to successive elevations of the land, so do submarine forests give evidence of local depressions. We say *local* depressions, for as yet these so-called forests have been found only in limited areas, as in the Firths of Forth and Tay, near the mouth of the Humber, and on the coast of Hampshire. In general, they consist of flat tracts of peat-moss or dark-coloured clay, with numerous stumps and trunks of trees, a few feet under the ordinary sea-level, and only exposed at low tides, or when washed bare after a storm. The very slight difference existing between the level of these forests and that of ordinary tides has suggested the idea that they give no evidence of submergence, but merely point to low woody tracts at one time sheltered from the inroads of the sea by sand-hills and headlands, but laid prostrate and covered by the waves as these sand-hills and barriers were overthrown. In whichever way the phenomena may be accounted for, the student has only to remember that local submergences by earthquakes and otherwise are quite as possible as local elevations ; and that the half-fossilised oaks, pines, and hazels of these submarine forests are identical with those now flourishing in the same localities.

Chemical Deposits.

143. Under this head we have classed all deposits arising from calcareous and siliceous springs, all saline incrustations and precipitates, and all bituminous or asphaltic exudations. The most frequent deposits of a calcareous nature are calc-tuff and calc-sinter, stalagmites and stalactites, and travertine. *Calc-tuff*, as the name implies, is an open, porous, and somewhat earthy deposition of carbonate of lime from calcareous springs, and is found in considerable masses enclosing fragments of plants, bones, shells, and other organisms. *Calc-sinter*, from the German word *sintern*, to drop, is of similar origin, but more compact and crystalline, and has a concretionary structure, owing to the successive films which are drop by drop added to the mass. *Stalagmites* and *stalactites*, already noticed in par. 23, are often of considerable magnitude in limestone caverns, and are here noticed as frequently enclosing the bones and skeletons of animals found in these caverns. *Travertine* (a corruption of the word Tiburtinus) is another calcareous incrustation, deposited by water holding carbonate of lime in solution. It is abundantly formed by the river Anio at Tibur, near Rome; at San Vignone, in Tuscany, and in other parts of Italy. It collects with great rapidity, and becomes sufficiently hard in course of a few years to form a light durable building-stone. As with deposits from calcareous, so with deposits from siliceous springs—these forming siliceous tufa and sinter in considerable masses, as at the hot springs or *Geysers* of Iceland (where it fills fissures 12 and 14 feet in width), the Azores, and other volcanic regions.

144. In hot countries, incrustations of common salt, nitrates of soda and potash, and other saline compounds, are formed during the dry season in the basins of evaporated lakes, in deserted river-courses, and in shallow creeks of the sea. These incrustations go on from year to year, and in course of time acquire considerable thickness, or are overlaid by sedimentary matter, and there exhibit alternations like the older formations. Such deposits are common in the sandy tracts of Africa, in the river-plains of South America, along the coasts of India, and in the salt lakes of Central Asia. With respect to springs and exudations of petroleum, asphalt, and the like, it may be remarked that they are too limited and scanty to produce any sensible effect on the bulk of the rocky crust, and are principally of geological importance as throwing light on analogous products of earlier date.

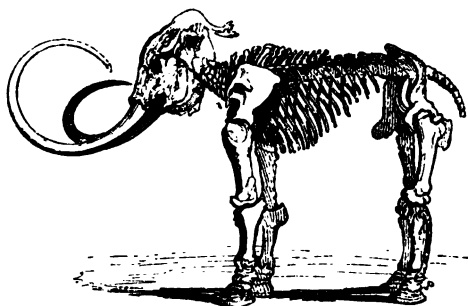
Organic Accumulations.

145. Organic accumulations, as depending on the agencies described in para. 20 and 21, consist either of vegetable or of animal remains, or of an intimate admixture of both. The most important of those resulting from vegetable growth are peat-mosses, jungle-swamps, drift-rafts, and submerged forests. *Peat*, which is a product of cold or temperate regions, arises from the annual growth and decay of marsh plants—reeds, rushes, equisetums, grasses, sphagnum, and the like, being the chief contributors to the mass, which in process of time becomes crowned and augmented by the presence of heath and other shrubby vegetation. Peat-moss has a tendency to accumulate in all swamps and hollows; and wherever stagnant water prevails, there it increases, filling up lakes, choking up river-courses, entombing fallen forests, and spreading over every surface having moisture sufficient to cherish its growth. It occupies considerable areas in Scotland and England, though rapidly disappearing before drainage and the plough; but it still covers wide areas in Ireland. It is found largely in the Netherlands, in Russia and Finland, in North America, and in insular positions, as Shetland, Orkney, and the Falkland Islands. It occurs in all stages of consolidation, from the loose fibrous turf of the present generation to the compact lignite-looking peat formed thousands of years ago. Besides the peculiar plants which constitute the mass, peat-mosses contain trunks of oaks, pines, and other huge timber-trees, apparently the wrecks of forests entangled and destroyed by their growth, prostrated by storms, or felled by the hand of man. Bones and horns of the elk, stag, ox, and other animals are found in most of our British mosses, with occasional remains of human art, as canoes, stone-axes, querns, and coins; and not unfrequently the skeleton of man himself. Some of these fossils are comparatively modern; others point to a period apparently coeval with the dawn of the human race. As with peat-mosses in temperate latitudes, so with the jungle growth of tropical deltas, as those of the Niger, Ganges, and Amazon; so with the cypress-swamps of the United States; and so also with the pine-rafts and vegetable debris borne down by such rivers as the Mississippi, and entombed amid the silt of their estuaries. All are adding to the solid structure of the globe, and forming beds, small it may be in comparison, but still analogous to the lignites of the tertiary, and the coals of the carboniferous era.

146. Accumulations resulting from animal agency are universal and varied; but those of any appreciable magnitude are chiefly coral-reefs, shell-beds, and infusorial deposita. The nature and growth of the coral zoophyte has been already alluded to in par. 22, and we need here only observe the extent of its distribution in the Pacific, Indian, and Southern Oceans. Viewing a *coral reef* as essentially composed of coral structure, with intermixtures of drift-coral, shells, sand, and other marine debris, we find such masses studding the Pacific on both sides of the equator, to the thirtieth degree of latitude; abounding in the southern part of the Indian Ocean; trending for hundreds of miles along the north-east coast of Australia; and occurring less or more plentifully in the Persian, Arabian, Red, and Mediterranean Seas. In the Pacific, where volcanic agency is actively upheaving and submerging, coral-reefs are found forming low circular islands, fringing islands of igneous origin, crowning others already upheaved, or stretching away in long surf-beaten ridges of many leagues in length, and from twenty to more than one hundred feet in thickness. Regarding them as mainly composed of coral, and knowing that the zoophytes can only add a few inches to the structure during a century, many of these reefs must have been commenced before the dawn of the present epoch; and looking upon them as consisting essentially of carbonate of lime, we have calcareous accumulations rivalling in magnitude the limestones of the secondary formations. *Shell-beds*, like those formed by the oyster, cockle, mussel, and other gregarious molluscs, are found in the seas and estuaries of every region, often spread over areas of considerable extent, and several feet in thickness. Dead shells are also accumulated on certain coasts in vast quantities; and shell-sand, entirely composed of comminuted shells, is drifted for leagues along the shores of every existing sea. In fact, when we consider the myriads of testacea that throng the waters of the ocean, the rapidity with which they propagate their kind, and the indestructible nature of their shells, we are compelled to admit their accumulations to a place in the present epoch, as important as that which they held in any of the earlier eras. In treating of the chalk and tertiary strata, we saw what an important part had been played in the formation of certain beds by infusorial animalcules and minute foraminifera; and so far as the researches of microscopists have gone, it would appear that the same minute agencies are still at work in the silt of our lakes and estuaries, and in the shoals of our seas. What the eye regards as mere mud and clay, is found, under the lens of the microscope, to con-

sist of countless myriads of infusorial cases, or the shells of foraminifera—a discovery whose limits will be further extended as the microscope becomes, as it soon must be, the inseparable companion of the geological inquirer.

147. Although coral-reefs, shell-beds, and infusorial deposits are the only accumulations of any magnitude arising from animal agency, yet what are usually termed *ossiferous gravels* (*os*, a bone, and *fero*, I yield), *ossiferous caverns*, and *osseous breccia*, are too important in a palæontological point of view to be passed over without some notice, however cursory. Sands and gravels containing masses of drift bones, such as the tusks and grinders of the mammoth and elephant, the bones and teeth of the rhinoceros, hippopotamus, horse, bear, &c., and the horns and bones of the elk, stag, and wild ox, are common in the valleys of Britain, in the river-plains of North America, and in the gravel cliffs of Siberia and the Polar Seas. Caverns occurring in the limestones of England, France, Belgium, Germany, Italy, North America, and Australia, are often replete with bones preserved in stalagmitic incrustations, or in calcareous mud; and masses of drifted bones (*osseous breccia*) occur in rents and fissures, cemented together, and petrified by calcareous tufa. To this curious series of accumulations belong the mastodons of North America, the mammoths of Siberia, the dinornis or gigantic bird of New Zea-



Mammoth.

land, the elephants and elks of our own valleys, and the remarkable heterogeneous accumulations of elephant, hippopotamus, horse, bear, hyæna, deer, ox, stag, and other bones found in the caves of the Derbyshire, Mendip, and Yorkshire hills. Most of these remains belong to animals now extinct in the countries where they occur, and point to a period apparently anterior to

the human race. Occasionally, as in Belgium and France, human bones and traces of savage life are found in these caverns ; but in such cases man has become the tenant long after the other bones were imbedded ; and we have as yet no distinct evidence that our race was coeval with the mastodon in America, with the elephant in Britain, or with the herds of mammoths that browsed on the ancient river-plains of Siberia. The human skeletons found in Continental caverns and osseous breccias, in the river-silts of South America, in the peat-bogs of our own island, and in the tufaceous limestone or coral-conglomerate of Guadalupe, are, comparatively speaking, but of yesterday, and date back at the utmost but a few thousand years.

148. The deposits described in the preceding paragraphs are either of vegetable or of animal origin ; but there is an intimate admixture of both in the *soil* or superficial covering of the earth. Strictly speaking, soil is an admixture of decomposed vegetable and animal matter—the decay of plants, and the droppings and exuvæ of animals. Though generally containing a large proportion of earthy ingredients, its dark loamy aspect renders it readily separable from the “subsoil” of sand, clay, or gravel, that lies beneath. It is of universal occurrence, no portion of the earth’s crust being uncovered with it, unless, perhaps, the newly deposited debris on the sea-shore, the shifting-sands of the desert, or the snow-clad mountain-top. In some places it barely covers the flinty rock, in others it is several feet in thickness, and everywhere it is annually on the increase.

Igneous or Volcanic Accumulations.

149. The effects of igneous action in modifying the crust of the globe, have been already adverted to in pars. 24–27, it having been there shown that it acts either as a gradually elevating force, as a displacing and deranging force, or as an accumulating agent by discharges of lava, scoræ, dust, and ashes. Whether manifesting itself in quiet upheavals, in earthquakes, or in volcanoes, its geological results are of prime importance ; and though the present epoch, as compared with some of the past, be one of rest and tranquillity, yet wide regions of the globe bear witness to extensive modifications even within the history of man. Volumes might be filled with the records of such changes : our limits only permit a few recent examples :—Since the commencement of the present century, the shores of the Baltic have been gra-

dually elevated from ten to fourteen inches above their former level, and are still apparently on the uprise. By an earthquake in 1819, a tract in the delta of the Indus, extending to nearly fifty miles in length and sixteen in breadth, was upheaved ten feet, while adjoining districts were depressed, and the features of the delta completely altered. By the great Chili earthquake of 1822, a tract of not less than one hundred thousand square miles was permanently elevated about six feet above its former level; and part of the sea-bottom remained dry at high-water, with beds of shell-fish adhering to the rocks on which they grew.

150. The above are examples of upheaval on a great scale, and attended with comparatively few convulsions or displacements. The following are of a different order:—In 1692, the town of Port Royal in Jamaica was visited by an earthquake, when the whole island was frightfully convulsed, and about a thousand acres in the vicinity of the town submerged to the depth of fifty feet, burying the inhabitants, their houses, and the shipping in the harbour. The disasters of the great Lisbon earthquake in 1755, when the greater part of that city was destroyed, and sixty thousand persons perished in the course of a few minutes, have been repeatedly recited; as have also those of Calabria, which lasted nearly four years—from 1783 to the end of 1786—producing fissures, ravines, landslips, falls of the sea-cliff, new lakes, and other changes.

151. The products of volcanoes, and the effects of volcanic action, have been sufficiently detailed in pars. 25 and 54. The eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius are matters of everyday notoriety; the burying of Herculaneum and Pompeii, a subject of high historic interest. In 1783, the discharges of the Skaptar Jokul, in Iceland, continued for nearly three months, producing the most disastrous effects, as well as most extensive geological changes on the face of the island. "The immediate source, and the actual extent of these torrents of lava, have never been actually determined; but the stream that flowed down the channel of the Skaptar was about fifty miles in length, by twelve or fifteen in its greatest breadth. With regard to its thickness, it was variable, being as much as five hundred or six hundred feet in the narrow channels, but in the plains rarely more than one hundred, and often not exceeding ten feet." We quote this as one of a hundred instances that might be advanced, to show the extent of discharges from existing volcanoes. Whether as lava, pumice, scoræ, dust, hot mud, or ashes, volcanic products, both on land and under the ocean, are materially

adding to the structure of the rocky crust, just as in former epochs a similar function was performed by the granites, porphyries, basalts, traps, and trap-tuffs, of the mineralogist.

RECAPITULATION.

In the preceding chapter we have briefly indicated the nature and extent of the various accumulations that have taken place since the close of the Boulder-drift; in other words, since sea and land acquired the outlines of their present configuration, and were peopled with existing species. These accumulations we have classed under the head POST-TERTIARY or RECENT, and subdivided into the following groups, according to the agents chiefly concerned in their aggregation:—

FLUVIATILE.—River accumulations and estuary deposits.

LACUSTRINE.—Lake-silt and marls.

MARINE.—Marine silt, sand-drift, shingle beaches, &c.

ORGANIC.—Peat-mosses, shell-beds, coral-reefs, &c.

CHEMICAL.—Calcareous, siliceous, and saline deposits.

IGNEOUS.—Discharges of lava, &c.; earthquake displacements.

As all these agencies are incessantly at work, some of the preceding accumulations are still in progress, others are comparatively recent, and some again of vast extent and antiquity. Indeed, when estuary deposits, alluvium in valleys, lake silts, peat-mosses, sand-drifts, and coral-reefs, are taken in the aggregate, they assume a geological importance not at all inferior, as far as amount is concerned, to any of the older formations. Palæontologically, they are also of considerable interest, affording evidence of certain general extinctions, as the mammoth, dinornis, dodo, &c.; and of many local extinctions, as those of the elephant, rhinoceros, wild boar, elk, bear, wolf, beaver, &c., from the surface of our own islands. In fact, the cosmical conditions of our planet forbid any cessation of progress; and thus, while its inorganic materials are being worn down, shifted, and reconstructed, its vitality must also undergo modifications, redistributions, and it may be extinctions. *Theoretically*, the accumulations of the present era are not only of high interest in themselves, but of prime importance, as furnishing a key to the complicated phenomena of former epochs; *practically*, they present many important features to the farmer, engineer, and navigator, and furnish us industrially with such products as brick-clay, sand, marl, peat, pumice, sulphur, brown-coal, and amber.

XV.

REVIEW OF THE STRATIFIED SYSTEMS.—GENERAL DEDUCTIONS.

152. To present a history of the structure and past conditions of our globe is the object of all geological inquiry. Astronomy may reveal its relations to the other orbs of the planetary system; Geology alone can unfold its individual constitution and structure. At the outset of his inquiry—on the very surface of the rocky crust he is about to examine—the geologist is met by the fact, that everything beneath and around him is in ceaseless action, reaction, and change. The causes of this change he finds in the atmosphere that envelopes the earth, in the waters that course its surface, in the life that peoples it, in the chemical constitution of the substances of which it is composed, and in the fires that glow within its interior. These are ever and everywhere active; here wasting and degrading, there accumulating and reconstructing; here submerging the habitable dry land beneath the ocean, there upheaving the sea-bottom to form new islands and continents; and anon preserving in the re-formed material the remains of plants and animals as evidences of the world's conditions at the time of their entombment. As at the present moment, so in all time past, the same sort of operations must have been going forward, and the results are manifested in the rock-formations of the solid crust which it is the province of geology to investigate. In this we find sandstones that must have formerly spread out as sandy shores; conglomerates that formed pebbly beaches; shales that were the muddy clays of former lakes and estuaries; limestones that once were living coral-reefs; and coal-beds composed of the remains of a bygone vegetation. Here, also, we discover imbedded corals and shells and fishes that must have lived in the ocean; reptiles that thronged shallow bays and estuaries; huge mammalia that browsed on river-plains; and plants, some that flourished in the swampy jungle, and others that reared their trunks in the tropical forest. Of all this there is the clearest and most abundant evidence; and by comparing and arranging, by tracing back from the accumulations of yesterday to the deepest-seated strata in the rocky crust, geologists have been enabled to present a pretty vivid outline of the world's history—of all its phases and conditions from the earliest time we have traces of organisation and life,

up to the existing order of things of which Man is the appointed head and ornament. The exponents of this history, we have said, are the rocky strata of the globe, and these, after diligent research in many and distant regions, have been arranged into systems and groups, each set being spread over certain areas, marked by some peculiarity of mineral composition, and characterised by the remains of certain plants and animals not found in any other series of strata. Briefly tabulated, these systems and groups present the following succession ; and could we map out their respective areas in the same manner as we do the existing sea and land, and restore the forms of their fossil plants and animals, geology would have accomplished its task, and done for the past phases of the globe what geography and natural history are doing, and have done, for its present features :—

<i>Systems.</i>	<i>Groups.</i>	<i>Epochs.</i>
POST-TERTIARY.	{ In progress. Recent.	CAINOZOIC.
TERTIARY.	{ Pleistocene.	
	{ Pliocene.	
	{ Miocene.	
	{ Eocene.	
CRETACEOUS.	{ Chalk.	MESOZOIC.
OOLITIC.	{ Greensand.	
	{ Wealden.	
	{ Oolite.	
NEW RED SANDSTONE.	{ Lias.	
	{ Trias.	PALÆOZOIC.
	{ Permian.	
	{ Coal-measures.	
CARBONIFEROUS.	{ Millstone grit.	
	{ Mountain limestone.	
	{ Lower coal-measures.	
	{ Yellow sandstones.	AZOIC.
OLD RED SANDSTONE.	{ Red conglomerates.	
	{ Grey fissile sandstones.	
	{ Upper silurian.	
SILURIAN.	{ Lower silurian.	
METAMORPHIC.	{ Clay-slate.	
	{ Gneiss and mica-schist.	

153. Such are the stratified systems composing the crust of the globe, such the types of vegetable and animal life that have successively peopled its surface. In these we find a long gradation of change and progress—not progress from imper-

fection to perfection, but from humbler to more highly organised forms. From the lowly sea-weeds of the silurian strata and marsh-plants of the old red sandstone, we rise to the prolific club-mosses, reeds, tree-ferns, and gigantic endogens of the coal-measures; from these to the palms, cycads, and pines of the oolite; and from these again to the exogens or true timber-trees of the present era. So also in the animal kingdom: the graptolites and trilobites of the silurian seas are succeeded by the curious bone-clad fishes of the old red sandstone; these by the sauroid fishes of the coal-measures; the sauroid fishes by the gigantic saurians and reptiles of the oolite; the reptiles of the oolite by the huge mammalia of the tertiary epoch; and these in time give place to present species, with Man as the crowning form of created existence.

154. We have seen that certain agents are ceaselessly modifying the superficial configuration of the earth, and giving rise to new conditions; and as plants and animals are influenced in their forms and distributions by external causes, these new conditions must be accompanied by new phases and arrangements of vitality. So it has been, as we trace graven on the rocky records of geology; so it is; and so, we infer, it will ever continue to be, under the ceaseless superintendence of an all-wise and beneficent Creator. To discover the facts of this long gradation of change and progress, and to combine the whole into a connected and intelligible history of our planet, is the aim of all geological inquiry—an aim not the less interesting or important that it bears directly on the procuring of those minerals and metals which add so greatly to the comforts and luxuries of life, and contribute so materially to human progress and civilisation. Combining its theoretical interest with its high practical value—the complexity and nicety of its problems as an intellectual exercise with the substantial wealth of its discoveries—the new light it throws on the duration of our planet, and the wonderful variety of its past life, with the certainty it confers on our industrial researches and operations—Geology becomes one of the most important of modern sciences, deserving, indeed, “the study of every cultivated mind, and the encouragement of every enlightened government.”

Dedicated by Permission to the Baron Alexander von Humboldt.

PROSPECTUS

OF

A NEW AND ENLARGED EDITION OF

THE PHYSICAL ATLAS

OF

NATURAL PHENOMENA.

BY

ALEX. KEITH JOHNSTON, F.R.S.E., F.R.G.S., F.G.S.,

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In announcing a New Edition of this important Work, the Publishers take the opportunity of directing attention to some of its more striking peculiarities, and to the nature of its contents.

The PHYSICAL ATLAS is the first work of its class ever produced in Britain ; and in its construction, as well as in its subject-matter and appearance, it differs essentially from anything under a corresponding name published on the Continent. On its first appearance, its merit as a work of original research, lucid arrangement, and striking illustration, was at once and most fully acknowledged by the members of the various scientific societies, and by the leading literary journals of Europe and America. Having taken its place as a standard work of reference and authority, its publication led directly to the introduction of Physical Geography, as an important branch of education, into the schools of Britain, America, and India. Its object is to exhibit and explain, in a popular and attractive

manner, the results of the discoveries and researches of travellers and philosophers in all the important branches of Natural Science, embracing an investigation into the laws which regulate the formation of the surface of the globe, the successive changes which this surface has undergone, the varied influences of climate and temperature to which it is subjected, the effects of these several conditions on the existing species of plants and animals, as exemplified in their geographical distribution, and the combined action of the whole on the present races, national characteristics, means of subsistence, commercial pursuits, religious peculiarities, health, and progressive improvement of MAN. And while the facts it enunciates are deduced from inquiries conducted in accordance with the soundest principles of inductive reasoning, they are, by a novel application of the principles of cartographic delineation, aided by colours, signs, and diagrams, so simply and forcibly conveyed through the eye to the mind, as to be comprehended with ease and recalled without effort. The book, therefore, has this great recommendation to the general reader, that it may be studied with advantage without any previous training; and as each of the branches into which it is divided, while elucidating the whole, is yet complete in itself, it may be overtaken in consecutive portions according to taste or requirement; while the complete Index, now to be appended for the first time, will render it instantly available for reference on any of the multifarious subjects on which it treats. Many years of arduous labour were devoted, in the first edition of this Work, to the critical examination and comparison of the investigations of travellers and naturalists of all nations, and the result was that the contents of many hundred volumes, from which alone information connected with the various kingdoms of nature could formerly be obtained, were in its plates and pages condensed and reproduced with a clearness and precision which could not be attained by any other means. The present issue will retain, in a revised and extended form, all the information of the former, with the addition of many new and important subjects, for the preparation of which materials have been available only within a recent period. The New Edition will contain thirty-five Plates in imperial folio, besides several smaller Plate Illustrations, about one hundred and twenty folio pages of Letterpress, and a COMPLETE INDEX. Six of these Plates, with the accompanying text, will now appear for the first time; six more will be re-engraved and re-written from fresh sources, in substitution of an equal number of the former edition, which, from the progress of science and the march of discovery,

had fallen somewhat behind the requirements of the day. Fully one-third of the volume will thus be new in Plates and Letterpress, while every part of the remaining portion will be thoroughly revised, and brought into accordance with the existing state of knowledge; and no expense or labour will be spared to render the PHYSICAL ATLAS, in elegance and utility, still more worthy of the reception it has met with.

In the execution of his task, the Author had the advantage of being assisted by men of the greatest eminence in the different departments of science of this and other countries, among whom the following have contributed directly to the pages of the Work, as expressed on the titles of the different subjects—viz,

SIR DAVID BREWSTER, K.H., D.C.L., F.R.S., Chevalier of the Prussian Order of Merit, Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, and Principal of the United Colleges of St Salvator and St Leonard, St Andrews.

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The Work is divided into the following Sections :—

I—GEOLOGY.

This comparatively new and highly important branch of study has made such rapid progress since the first publication of the Atlas, as to require many additions and rectifications on the plates and text, which will now be found to present a complete view of the science, with its most recent discoveries. This division comprises—

1. **THE GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE of the GLOBE**, a work entirely novel and peculiar in its character, exhibiting in this edition the most recent discoveries and investigations. It is accompanied by extensive notes on the general principles of Geology and their application.
2. **A MAP of the MOUNTAIN CHAINS, PLAINS, and TABLE-LANDS of ASIA and EUROPE**, a Geological Map of Java, and one shewing the rise of the remarkable island of Reguain, with additional sections and diagrams, from a series of new designs, prepared for the present issue. The notes contain, besides general descriptions, an essay on the mean height of the continental masses.
3. **A MAP of the MOUNTAIN SYSTEMS of EUROPE**, constructed on the ingenious and interesting principle of contour lines, with notes, and tables of the different mountain groups, coloured in this edition, to distinguish the different systems.
4. **A GEOLOGICAL MAP of EUROPE**, in which the different systems of rocks are clearly defined by colours, based on the most recent researches, and the unedited materials of the most distinguished geologists, accompanied by full explanatory notes.
- 5, 6. **A PALEONTOLOGICAL MAP of the BRITISH ISLANDS**. "The varied nature of the geology of Britain, and the minute investigation to which it has been subjected, have rendered it the type of the geology of the earth." In this Map the several geological formations are laid down from the researches of our ablest geologists on a plan entirely different from any hitherto published. The names inserted refer to localities where remarkable organic remains exist, or which are noticed in geological memoirs. Places particularly productive in fossils are pointed out by peculiar signs, indicating the nature of the organic remains. The more remarkable phenomena of the distribution of life, bearing on the distribution of the existing flora and fauna, are indicated at length where they occur. Figures of the most characteristic fossils, and types of the groups of ammonites, are engraved on the margins; and the whole is elucidated by extensive tables and notes, on the plates and in the text. In order to secure greater accuracy in the new edition, the plates have been coloured by a laborious process of printing.

7. **A MAP of the MOUNTAIN CHAINS, PLAINS, and TABLE-LANDS of NORTH and SOUTH AMERICA**, with a plan of the Volcano of Jorullo, by Humboldt, the Mud Volcanoes of the Island of Trinidad, a geological section across North America, from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean, sections of the Andes, &c., engraved expressly for this edition from entirely new materials, with full letterpress explanations.
8. **A GEOLOGICAL MAP of the UNITED STATES and the BRITISH POSSESSIONS of NORTH AMERICA**, presenting, for the first time, from recent Government surveys and extensive private researches, a complete view of the geological structure of this important region, with tables and notes.
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10. **THE PHENOMENA of VOLCANIC ACTION**: a series of interesting maps and plans, exhibiting the different regions of the globe subject to earthquakes, and pointing out the positions of active and extinct volcanoes, with comprehensive tables and notes.
11. **COMPARATIVE VIEWS of REMARKABLE GEOLOGICAL PHENOMENA**, exhibited in plans and sections of the volcanoes of Pichincha and Antisana, Teneriffe, Vesuvius, Etna, plans and views of the craters of active volcanoes, &c., and explanatory text.

II.—HYDROGRAPHY.

A large portion of this division of the Physical Atlas is devoted to subjects connected with navigation. The ocean, that "great pathway of nations," which for centuries has been traversed in every direction, has only of late years been subjected to scientific investigation; and the assistance which science has here rendered to commerce and the intercommunication of sea-divided states is of the utmost value. The ocean currents, which perform so important a part in the economy of nature, and a knowledge of the extent, direction, and velocity of which is so indispensable to the seaman, are here treated as a regular system, and explained with a view to practical utility. "It is one of the chief points of a seaman's duty," says Captain Basil Hall, "to know where to find a fair wind, and where to fall in with a favourable current"—desiderata which will be found fully supplied in this division, and in that of Meteorology, in both of which the subject is brought down to the period of republication.

The Plates in this division comprise—

1. **A PHYSICAL CHART of the ATLANTIC OCEAN**, containing a vast amount of information on every subject connected with the sailing tracks, the currents, temperature, and depth of this most important sea,

with extensive tables and notes. An additional Index Map, distinguishing by colours the equatorial and the arctic currents over the globe, and a Physical Chart of the North Polar Seas, have been appended to this edition.

2. A PHYSICAL CHART of the INDIAN OCEAN. Scientific seamanship has nowhere achieved such valuable triumphs as in the navigation of the Indian seas, and nowhere is an acquaintance with physical phenomena of such paramount importance to the mariner. In this chart will be found not only all known facts regarding the ocean currents, and the best routes to be followed during the different monsoon seasons, but also the limits of the trade-winds, the monsoon regions, and the districts of cyclones.

3. A PHYSICAL CHART of the PACIFIC OCEAN, in which the great Peruvian coast or "Humboldt's current," and many others, whose existence has till lately been unsuspected, are graphically delineated and fully explained, with the sailing-tracks between Europe and America, the tracks by the Isthmus of Panama, &c.

4. A TIDAL MAP of the BRITISH SEAS, representing the whole subject of the tides according to the most recent investigations. Indicating, by means of shading, the conformation of the bottom, and the exact depth of the sea in fathoms. Shewing the progress of the wave of high water, and the hour of high water at new and full moon. Accompanied by notes and tables, and a general tidal chart of the world.

5. A RIVER MAP of EUROPE and ASIA.

6. A RIVER MAP of AMERICA.

In these maps the hydrological and hydrographical conditions of the Old and New Worlds are fully explained. The river basins are divided by lines; and the declivities of the countries are indicated by colours shewing the different seas and basins to which they contribute their waters, with tables, notes, and diagrams of the fall of rivers. An essay on salt lakes of continental basins has been added to the new edition.

III.—METEOROLOGY.

This universally interesting science is so intimately connected with the common affairs of life, that man may be said to be by nature a meteorologist. Long limited to the simple observance of atmospherical appearances, meteorology has in modern times made rapid advances, and is constantly enriched by the most extensive and varied researches.

The illustrations in this division of the work consist of—

1. MAP of the ANNUAL ISOTHERMAL LINES, or lines of equal temperature, on the principle laid down by the illustrious Humboldt, a work of the greatest interest to all engaged in inquiries connected with the tempera-

ture of our globe ; with illustrations and notes on the effects of heat on the products of different countries, and diagrams of the monthly isothermals, from a new series of drawings prepared for the present edition.

2. A CHART of the GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION of WINDS and STORMS, defining by colours the regions of the globe within which the constant or trade winds, and the periodical winds, or monsoons, and local winds prevail. The regions visited by cyclones in the West Indies, the Indian Ocean, and the China Sea, with notes and tables, in which the whole subject of Aerial currents, equally important to the mariner and the meteorologist, is fully explained. This plate has been reconstructed from the latest sources.

3. HYETOGRAPHIC or RAIN MAP of the WORLD, which shews at a glance the distribution of rain over the various parts of the globe, in the different seasons : the zone or belt which limits the fall of periodical rains, the desert regions on which no rain falls, and the equatorial limits of the fall of snow, with tables of the average annual amount of rain at different places, and a special map of the temperature and rain-fall of India, with notes and illustrations, prepared for the new edition.

4. HYETOGRAPHIC or RAIN MAP of EUROPE, shewing the decrease of rain on mountains and in the interior of continents ; the different seasons in which the greatest amount of rain falls ; the proportion of rain which annually falls in different parts of Europe ; with the number of rainy days in the course of a year, the number of days in which snow falls, the direction of winds which bring rain to the different countries, with a special rain-map of the British Islands, and tables of its meteorological features, appended to the present edition.

5. CHART of the POLARISING STRUCTURE of the ATMOSPHERE, in which the most recent observations on this new and interesting subject are fully explained.

6. CHART of MAGNETIC MERIDIANS and PARALLELS, with lines of equal declination and inclination of the compass, and explanatory notes.

IV.—NATURAL HISTORY.

Including Phyto-geography, or the geographical distribution of plants ; zoological geography, or the distribution of animals ; and ethnology, or the distribution of the different races of men.

In this division, the illustrations of which are entirely new in this country, the student of Natural History will find a great amount of the most curious and instructive matter, grouped and arranged in a style the most pleasing and attractive. Plate—

1. Presents a survey of the most important Plants yielding food, including cultivated grasses, cultivated and wild bread-plants, fruits, beverages, spices, dyes, &c., laid down in connexion with climatic conditions ; with sections of distribution according to altitude ; in which the native regions and cultivated districts of plants are explained and defined by colours, embracing many of the subjects which engage the attention of the meteorologist, the botanist, and the political economist. Constructed and engraved anew for this edition.
2. A General View of **BOTANICAL GEOGRAPHY**, in which the globe is divided into regions, each inhabited by different classes of plants, with profiles of the great mountain chains, shewing at one view the entire range of the vegetable world, from the equator to the poles, from new materials for the present edition.
3. The **GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION of MAMMIFEROUS ANIMALS**, of the orders *Quadrumanæ*, &c. ; defining the limits within which families occur, and their intensity in different regions of the globe, as indicated by the number of species, with tables and notes on the classification of animals. As in the case of vegetables, each class of animals has its appropriate climate, where alone its nature can be fully developed ; and in tracing this through the various families of the animal kingdom, many highly curious and instructive phenomena, hitherto little understood, are lucidly explained.
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11. **A MORAL and STATISTICAL CHART**, shewing the Geographical Distribution of MAN according to Religious Belief, with the principal Protestant mission-stations in the middle of the 19th century, an enlarged map of the prevailing forms of religion in Europe, a map of the languages of Europe, a map of the mission-stations and languages of India—the mission-stations of South Africa and of British North America, with extensive tables and notes on the area, population, state of progress, and education of the several peoples and states of the globe.
12. **MAP OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION of HEALTH and DISEASE**, considered in connection with climate, soil, and other circumstances of natural phenomena, with tables and diagrams, shewing the comparative longevity of man in different countries and regions.

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TIDAL CHART of the BRITISH SEAS, shewing the Hours of High Water, Depth of the Sea, &c. By JOHN SCOTT RUSSELL, Esq., F.R.S.E., and A. KEITH JOHNSTON, F.R.S.E.

OPINIONS REGARDING THE PHYSICAL ATLAS.

(FIRST EDITION.)

Quarterly Review.

We possess, indeed, the valuable Physical Atlas of Mr Keith Johnston, which may well be associated with Mrs Somerville's book, for their mutual illustration. But this Atlas is itself a recent undertaking, and by no means yet known or studied commensurately with its merits. . . . Such works are as essential to the study of Physical Geography as are experiments to the chemical student, or models and diagrams to instruction in the mechanical sciences—or, what is more pertinent in this case, as common maps to common geography. Their linear delineations to the eye are an admirable shorthand writing, conveying impressions to the mind far more explicit and forcible than any mere descriptions can afford—suggesting comparisons and relations, and giving facilities of reference which can in no other way be equally attained. The Atlas ought to have a place in every good library. . . . We know no work containing such copious and exact information as to all the physical circumstances of the earth on which we live, nor any of which the methods are so well fitted for the instruction of those who come ignorantly to the subject.

Edinburgh Review.

From a work so rich in information, and so varied in its materials, it is almost impossible to select and compress into moderate compass anything which will give the general reader a satisfactory idea of its character and contents. It is a merit which may justly be conceded to these thirty maps, that almost every one of them embodies the materials of many volumes—the results of long years of research—and exhibits the most valuable thoughts of the most distinguished men of the age, pictured visibly to the eye.

Blackwood's Magazine.

To the scholar, to the student, and to the already large yet daily increasing multitude of inquirers who cultivate natural science, the Physical Atlas is a treasure of incalculable value. It brings before the mind's eye, in one grand panoramic view, and in a form clear, definite, and easily comprehensible, all the facts at present known relative to the great subjects of which it treats, and may be regarded as a lucid epitome of a thousand scattered volumes, more or less intrinsically valuable, of which it contains the heart and substance.

North British Review.

Although we have thus endeavoured to give our readers an idea of the valuable contents of the Physical Atlas, yet we are persuaded that it is only by an examination and study of the work itself, that they can form anything like an accurate estimate of the amount of instruction and even amusement which it affords. In public libraries and reading-rooms, the work will be of inestimable value; and in our public and even private schools, the teacher can scarcely perform his duties to the youth under his charge, unless he gives them the advantage of studying the phenomena of the material universe through the medium of its graphic representations.

By devoting a single hour to the contemplation of our globe in the diorama of a Physical Atlas, the student will witness the grandeur of the tenement in which he dwells, and will not fail to appreciate the beautiful conception of Humboldt, when he speaks of "the life of the earth."

The Athenæum.

The book before us is, in short, a graphic encyclopædia of the sciences—an atlas of human knowledge done into maps. It exemplifies the truth which it expresses—that he who runs may read. The Thermal Laws of Leslie it enunciates by a bent line running across a map of Europe; the abstract researches of Gauss it embodies in a few parallel curves winding over a section of the globe; a formula of Laplace it melts down to a little patch of mesotint shadow; a problem of the transcendental analysis, which covers pages with definite integrals, it makes plain to the eye by a little stippling and hatching on a given degree of longitude! All possible relations of time and space, heat and cold, wet and dry, frost and snow, volcano and storm, current and tide, plant and beast, race and religion, attraction and repulsion, glacier and avalanche, fossil and mammoth, river and mountain, mine and forest, air and cloud, and sea and sky—all in the earth, and under the earth, and on the earth, and above the earth, that the heart of man has conceived or his head understood—are brought together by a marvellous microcosm, and planted on these little sheets of paper—thus making themselves clear to every eye. In short, we have a summary of all the cross-questions of Nature for twenty centuries—and all the answers of Nature herself set down and speaking to us voluminous system *dans un mot*. . . . Mr Johnston is well known as a geographer of great accuracy and research; and it is certain that this work will add to his reputation, for it is beautifully engraved, and accompanied with explanatory and tabular letterpress of great value.

Bulletin de la Société de Géographie.

Considéré maintenant comme un livre classique, cet ouvrage, développé et complété par M. Alexandre Keith Johnston, est devenu, grâce aux presses britanniques, un des plus magnifiques monuments qu'on ait encore élevés au génie scientifique de notre siècle. L'Atlas de M. Johnston est dédié à l'illustre académicien de Berlin. C'était justice; on aime à voir ces exemples de reconnaissance et de probité littéraires si rares de nos jours: l'hommage éclatant rendu à celui qui a mis en avant l'idée première de ce grand travail honore M. Johnston et ne fait que relever son propre mérite. Le plan qu'il a suivi est excellent; la description physique du monde se trouve répartie en quatre sections, qui comprennent la météorologie, l'hydrographie, la géologie, la phytographie, et la zoologie. L'analyse rapide que nous allons donner de cette belle publication permettra d'en apprécier la valeur. La partie phytologique et zoologique de l'ouvrage de M. Johnston dépasse en perfection tout ce que nous venons de faire connaître; les neuf cartes dont elle se compose représentent la géographie des plantes et des animaux sous l'aspect le plus splendide. Là se termine cet immense travail. Nous avons indiqué rapidement les diverses parties de l'Atlas; nous devons ajouter que chaque carte est accompagnée d'un texte explicatif, qui fait connaître l'état présent de la science. De telles publications font la gloire d'un pays, et nous voyons avec un profond sentiment de regret la France devancée par l'Allemagne et l'Angleterre dans cette voie si belle et si féconde.

The London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Philosophical Magazine.

To the general student it will convey clearly and agreeably a mass of that knowledge which is daily becoming more necessary to him. To the rising generation, in whose education these subjects cannot well be neglected, where any pretension is made to keep pace with the intellectual progress of the times, these maps will throw new and powerful interest into the study of Geography, leading not merely to the knowledge of relative position and political or rather artificial divisions, but to an appreciation of the natural relations, regarded either in a scientific or economic point of view, of the various regions to each other, and a comprehension of the grand unity of this our terrestrial world, where each part is, as it were, complementary to all the rest.

The Nautical Magazine.

Its value is not confined merely to the botanist or the mineralogist, but the seaman may consult with advantage the charts it contains of the ocean, for the various streams of current which will affect his vessel's course; to which subject we find a large portion of the Part before us is devoted. Under the titles of the different currents of the North and South Atlantic Ocean, elaborate descriptions are given of their origin, extent, and velocity, with additional remarks; all of which, besides the graphic delineation of them in the charts, form highly valuable reference for the seamen. The whole is compiled with great care, and is no less remarkable for the neatness of its execution than for the vast mass of information which it presents within a very small compass. We can assure our naval friends that they would find it a very interesting and useful addition to their collection of nautical materials.

The Annals and Magazine of Natural History.

It is at a happy period that this work makes its appearance among us—when the first of physical geographers is laying before us the great generalisations, the fruits of a life devoted to the personal investigation of the grandest of terrestrial phenomena. Now that the illustrious Humboldt is giving to the world his philosophic summary of the natural laws, and the interest in these speculations is so rapidly extended, it will be no small advantage to those whose opportunities have not admitted of their becoming acquainted with these matters, to meet with a work in which the results of the labours of the sons of enterprise, the voyager, the traveller, naturalist, hydrographer, &c., are philosophically systematised by the more tranquil efforts of deductive science, and presented in a tangible form; from which, by a careful study of a few maps, comprehensible by any one of common intelligence and application, they may acquire an amount of knowledge which years of reading of the works in which the facts have hitherto been stored up would not have given so clearly, nor fixed so firmly in the memory.

Dublin University Magazine.

No study more agreeable can be conceived than an Atlas of maps of this kind. There is no department in all the vast region of which we have been writing, but has had its appropriate illustration. From the depths of the ocean to the heights of the atmosphere, the whole theatre in which God conducts our drama of animated nature is exposed. We shall turn to the largest and most perfect of the numerous works of this kind with which science has lately obliged the world—the superb Physical Atlas of Johnston—and endeavour to explain the series of panoramas of air, water, earth, and organic existence, which its successive plates present to us.

The British Quarterly Review.

No cost or labour has been spared to give the work the utmost possible completeness. . . . It is a work which must have its place in every large library, and we know of no class of the community to whom it should not be of high value. The scholar and the man of science, the manufacturer and the agriculturist, will find it teeming with information bearing on their respective pursuits.

New Educational Works

BY

ALEXANDER KEITH JOHNSTON,

F.R.S.E., F.R.G.S., F.G.S.,

Geographer to her Majesty for Scotland, Author of "The Physical Atlas," &c.

I.

A SCHOOL ATLAS OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY,

ILLUSTRATING, IN A SERIES OF ORIGINAL DESIGNS,
THE ELEMENTARY FACTS OF

GEOLOGY, HYDROLOGY, METEOROLOGY, AND NATURAL HISTORY.

IN this ATLAS OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY the subject is treated in a more simple and elementary manner than in the previous works of the Author—the object being to convey broad and general ideas on the form and structure of our Planet, and the principal phenomena affecting its outer crust. Its plan is to proceed systematically, from a representation of the OCEANS, LAKES, RIVERS, MOUNTAIN-CHAINS, TABLE-LANDS, FLAINS, and VALLEYS of the different portions of the GLOBE, and the distribution of EARTHQUAKES, VOLCANOES, HEAT, RAIN, and WIND—by which its surface is modified—to its actual occupation by the various RACES, FAMILIES, and SPECIES of PLANTS, ANIMALS, and MAN. In these delineations, use has been made of Colour as a means of distinction, to an extent not hitherto supposed capable of practical application; and the signs and symbols used throughout the ATLAS, as well as those employed in general Chartography, are elucidated in a Series of Views and Diagrams in the Frontispiece. Each Plate has its object explained by a short Letterpress Note.

II.

SCHOOL ATLAS OF CLASSICAL GEOGRAPHY,

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one of the Classical Masters in the Edinburgh Academy.

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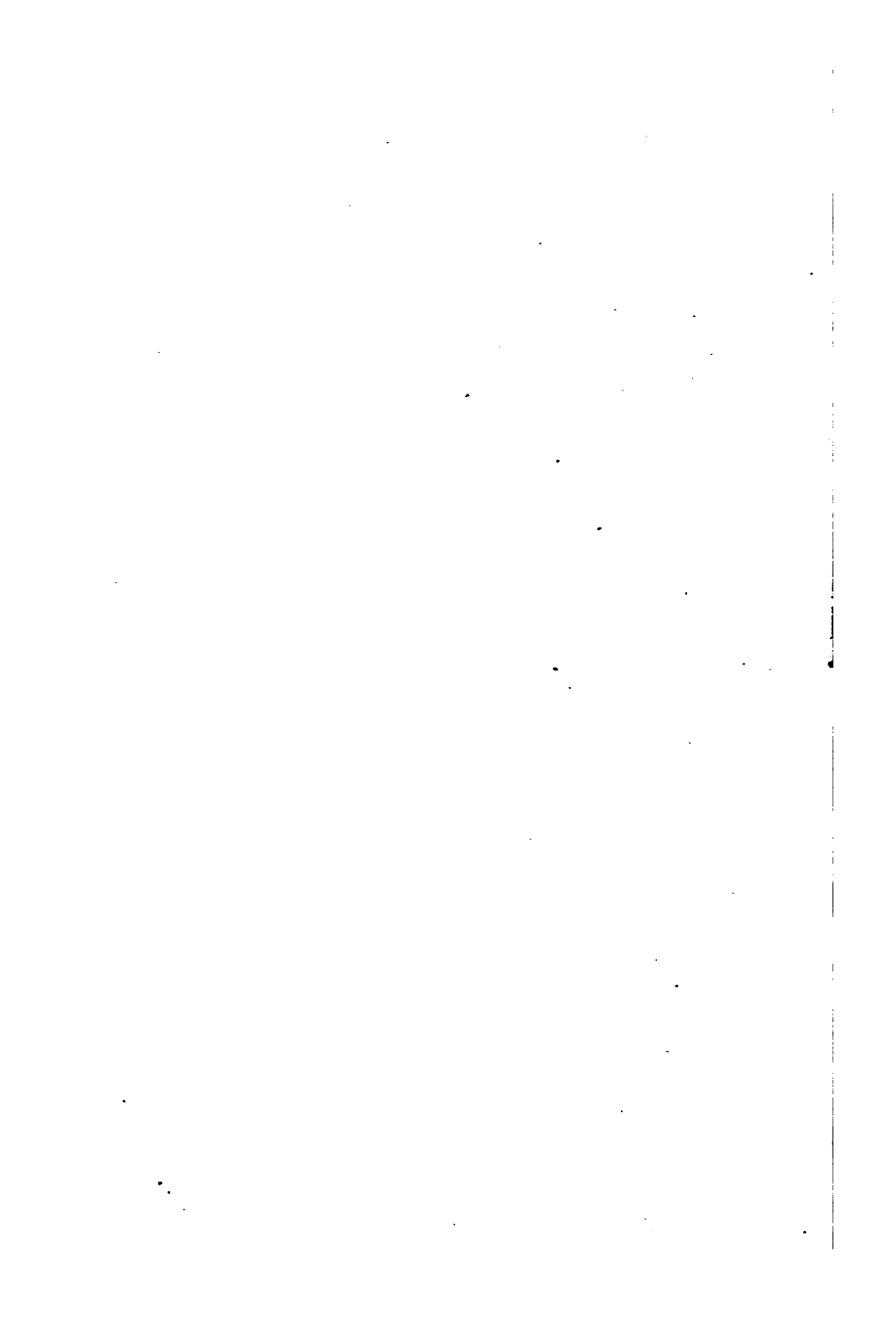
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